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Mass. Bureau of Statistics of Labor

LABOR BULLETIN

OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF

MASSACHUSETTS

No. 40

MARCH, 1906.

CONTAINING:

Taking of a Census, The.	Current Comment—Immigration.
True Basis of Political Representation, The.	Industrial Agreements.
Restriction of Immigration, The.	Trade Union Notes.
Wages Paid: Navy Yard and Private Establishments.	Recent Legal Labor Decisions.
Trade Unions.	Excerpts.
	Statistical Abstracts.
Free Employment Offices.	

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CHAS. F. PIDGIN, *Chief.*
FRANK H. DROWN, *First Clerk.* Wm. G. GRUNDY, *Second Clerk.*



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WHOLE No. 40.

Editor: CHAS. F. PIDGIN, Chief of Bureau.

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THE TAKING OF A CENSUS.

No one not intimately acquainted with the field work and tabulation of a census can form an adequate idea of the infinitude of detail connected therewith. This lack of knowledge of the labor of taking a census is undoubtedly due to the fact that no presentation has been made of the details relating to such work for the use of the general public. In fact, only one work devoted to the subject of practical statistics has ever been written, and its limited circulation among statisticians afforded no opportunity for the general reader to understand what is, like grammar, both "a science and an art."

The earlier censuses comprehended an enumeration of the people, and to-day the requirements of the Massachusetts Constitution relate only to an enumeration of the people and the number of legal voters, the districting of the State for representative, senatorial, and councillor districts being governed by the number of legal voters.

As the body politic has grown, those interested in bad conditions therein or in its material advancement have asked for information upon these subjects. The inquiries have increased in number from census to census until now they comprehend the most salient features relating to the political, physical, sociological, and industrial conditions of the people. The State, like a great manufacturer, takes an account of stock once in 10 years. The last State Census, taken under the provisions of Chapter 423 of the Acts of 1904, related not only to population and social statistics, but called for information concerning manufactures, trade,

mining and quarrying, agricultural products and property, the shore and inland fisheries, coastwise and ocean commerce, libraries and reading-rooms, and schools and school property. The information was collected upon schedules prepared by this Bureau. They were submitted to the Governor and Council for their approval, and contained no other inquiries than those so approved.

One of the stipulations of the law which led to a considerable increase in the number of inquiries was the provision of Section 3, which required the Chief of the Bureau to communicate, before preparing the schedules, with the heads of the different State departments, offices, and institutions, and invite suggestions from them as to the insertion of inquiries, the answers to which would supply information of value. In addition to the branches of inquiries previously mentioned the census will obtain statistics relating to forestry, covering the kinds of trees, the years of growth, and the distribution in the different cities and towns. The facts thus secured will enable the State Forester to prepare a forestry map. In addition, the riparian rights given for the planting of oysters and clams will be thoroughly investigated, so that measures may be taken by legislative action, or otherwise, to increase the productive capacity of the long line of flats upon our shore line from Cape Ann to Rhode Island.

Population—The Census Enumerators.

By the provisions of Section 8 of the Census Law, the mayor and aldermen of cities and the selectmen of towns were given authority to nominate twice as many persons as there were enumerators to be appointed in each city or town. Certain rules and tests were fixed by the Bureau and approved by the Civil Service Commissioners. Nearly 4,000 persons of both sexes were examined as regarding their fitness for the position of enumerator, and 1,447 different persons were employed during the progress of the work. Of this number, 1,219 were men and 228, or 15.76 per cent, were women.

The work of the enumerators is to be judged from two points of view. One of these relates to the accuracy of the enumeration; that is, as to whether the enumerator thoroughly covered his district and obtained the names and other information relating to all persons who resided within the limits of his district on May 1, 1905. The other point of view relates to the character of the work performed by him; that is, whether he thoroughly understood his instructions so that his schedules were well filled, conveying the information called for by the inquiries upon them.

Accuracy of Enumeration.

We will first consider the question of the accuracy of the enumeration. It may be said in advance that it is undoubtedly impossible to enumerate every person in every city or town in a census. Many seek

to avoid enumeration, fearing that their taxes may be increased or that they may be called upon for some civic duty that they do not care to perform. In many cases, the head of the household or the person who answers the inquiries fails to give the names of all the people living in the house. Many houses are closed at the time of enumeration, or soon after, and no doubt persons who are actually residents on the first of May are not enumerated because they do not return, or their names are omitted by persons who are called upon to supply particulars long after the date of enumeration. This was particularly the case in Boston where information was not obtained for many closed houses until about the middle of November. We supply below a table showing the cities and towns which claimed inaccuracy in the enumeration, the figures given out as the result of the preliminary count, and the final figures as certified to the Secretary of the Commonwealth on the first day of December.

TABLE I. *Results of Census Revision.*

CITIES AND TOWNS.	County of—	POPULATION —		Increases from Revision
		as Returned	as Revised	
HOLYOKE,	Hampden,	49,124	49,934	810
NORTHAMPTON,	Hampshire,	19,942	19,957	15
LOWELL,	Middlesex,	94,845	94,889	44
Douglas,*	Worcester,	1,966	2,120	154
Gardner,*	Worcester,	11,981	12,012	31
Northbridge,	Worcester,	7,395	7,400	5
Southbridge,*	Worcester,	10,947	11,000	53
Spencer,*	Worcester,	6,963	7,121	158
Webster,*	Worcester,	9,954	10,018	64
WORCESTER,	Worcester,	127,763	128,135	372
TOTALS,	340,880	342,586	1,706

* As a result of the revision, this town was enabled to grant an additional license for the sale of intoxicating liquors.

In the 10 cities and towns considered, the preliminary count showed a total of 340,880 ; the final count showed a total of 342,586, an increase of 1,706. This would indicate a gain of fifty one-hundredths of one per cent, indicating that the original enumeration covered 99.50 per cent of the actual population. The largest increase was in the city of Holyoke. The omission was due to the failure of an enumerator to understand his map, and he enumerated but a small part of the district assigned to him. The error was discovered in the office and an agent sent to Holyoke to complete the enumeration. Compared with the total population of the State, 3,003,680, the variation of 1,706 represents but six one-hundredths of one per cent, indicating that 99.94 per cent of the population was accurately enumerated.

Grade of Work Done: By Sex.

The next subject for consideration is the question of the correctness of the work done by the enumerators ; that is, their compliance with the instructions. The examining division was instructed to be particu-

larly critical in this work. No census can be better than the original returns sent in by the enumerators; if these are incomplete or inaccurate they detract so much from the final results. There is no honest way in which deficient field work can be made truthful by work done in the office except by correspondence, and this means of correction was very freely resorted to in the census just taken.

Table II shows the results of the examination by numbers and percentages for the male and female enumerators and for both sexes, according to a classification ranging from "excellent" to "very bad."

TABLE II. *Comparison of Work Done by Men and Women as Census Enumerators.*

KIND OF WORK DONE.	NUMBER			PERCENTAGES		
	Men	Women	Both Sexes	Men	Women	Both Sexes
Excellent,	32	7	39	2.62	3.07	2.70
Very good,	82	29	111	6.73	12.72	7.67
Good,	323	63	386	26.50	27.63	26.68
Fair,	470	88	558	38.56	38.60	38.56
Poor,	213	24	237	17.47	10.52	16.38
Bad,	73	15	88	5.99	6.58	6.08
Very bad,	26	2	28	2.13	0.88	1.93
TOTALS,	1,219	228	1,447	100.00	100.00	100.00

As previously stated, out of 1,447 enumerators, 228 were women. By examining the table we find that 39 were reported as "excellent;" 2.62 per cent of the men and 3.07 per cent of the women were in this class. There were 111 reported as "very good;" 6.73 per cent of the men and 12.72 per cent of the women were in this class. The "poor" numbered 237; this class included 17.47 per cent of the men and 10.52 per cent of the women. The "very bad" were 28 in number; this class included 2.13 per cent of the men and 0.88 per cent of the women. The work of the women, judged by itself, was better than that done by the men. The number of women employed as enumerators was much greater than in any preceding census.

Table III shows the kind of work done by the enumerators as regards the different inquiries contained upon the schedules. For tabulating purposes, each of the 1,447 districts is divided into two sections, one containing males and the other containing females. This makes the whole number of districts under consideration in Table III, which follows, 2,894.

TABLE III. *Kind of Work Done by Enumerators. CENSUS OF 1905.*

CLASSIFICATION OF SCHEDULE INQUIRIES.	KIND OF WORK DONE											
	Excellent		Very Good		Good		Fair		Bad		Very Bad	
	Sex Divisions of Districts											
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Occupation,	26	19	82	54	569	643	548	498	205	219	17	14
Town (or city) in which work is performed,	45	35	72	49	277	437	927	762	120	143	6	21
Years or months engaged in present occupation,	42	38	132	49	276	402	885	704	107	234	5	20
Present occupation injurious to health,	41	33	68	49	442	415	792	793	99	144	5	13
Life insurance,	51	52	69	51	215	286	1,048	962	62	86	2	10
Months employed and unemployed,	41	35	70	47	336	372	911	862	81	114	8	17
Employed in regular situation May 1,	42	30	72	45	248	435	955	798	122	118	8	21
Place of birth,	46	39	63	61	290	303	969	996	78	46	1	2
Months resident in town,	46	40	70	61	328	337	919	926	80	78	4	5
Years resident in Massachusetts,	48	41	153	63	299	302	883	981	63	54	1	6
Years resident in United States,	48	38	66	63	279	417	985	875	68	51	1	3
Place of birth of father,	46	33	55	56	328	322	968	955	49	30	1	11
Place of birth of mother,	42	33	54	66	322	321	978	955	50	32	1	10
Nativity of grandparents,	49	37	55	40	317	236	996	1,087	31	46	1	1
Relation to head of family,	29	29	42	42	396	363	862	944	111	66	7	3
Read,	24	37	50	43	406	336	846	978	116	52	5	1
Write,	33	37	47	44	387	346	862	967	115	52	3	1
Polls and voters,	20	-	49	-	448	-	630	-	282	-	18	-
Color and race,	55	40	52	43	232	248	1,058	1,064	47	49	3	3
Age,	45	43	48	44	243	214	1,059	1,110	51	35	1	1
Conjugal condition,	37	39	46	19	502	422	708	823	146	143	8	1
Military service,	30	-	104	-	217	-	988	-	98	-	10	-
Number of years married,	-	38	-	50	-	314	-	995	-	48	-	2
Birthplace of husband,	-	37	-	44	-	291	-	1,021	-	51	-	3
Color and race of husband,	-	36	-	44	-	292	-	1,024	-	48	-	3
If a widow, — last occupation of husband,	-	-	38	-	67	-	367	-	965	-	5	-
Number of children borne,	-	-	26	-	40	-	448	-	788	-	116	-
Number of children living,	-	-	28	-	44	-	402	-	867	-	82	-
Number of children deceased,	-	-	27	-	44	-	401	-	858	-	94	-
In what year was first child borne,	-	-	28	-	48	-	387	-	877	-	79	-
In what year was last child borne,	-	-	28	-	45	-	384	-	880	-	87	-
Number of children borne by your mother,	-	-	28	-	41	-	437	-	758	-	129	-
												54

It will be noted that upon the line "Military Service," as the question relates entirely to males, no figures are inserted in the columns headed "F," while in the remainder of the table, as the inquiries relate to females, no figures are inserted in the columns headed "M." It should be borne in mind that the words "males" and "females" in this table do not refer to the enumerators, but to the schedules themselves; that is, to the schedules for males and the schedules for females in each district.

Taking the first line of the table, Occupation, in the column headed "excellent" we find that in 26 districts the occupation for males was so well reported as to be considered "excellent;" in 19 districts for females there was a similar condition. In 82 districts for males and in 54 districts for females the occupation returns were considered "very good." In 569 districts for males and 643 of those for females the occupation returns were "good." In 548 districts for males and 498 for females the occupation returns were "fair." In 205 districts for males and 219 of those for females the occupation returns were "bad;" while in 17 districts for males and 14 for females the occupation returns were "very bad." It will be noted (see fifth line of table) that the greatest number of "excellent" returns were made as regards Life Insurance, there being

51 districts for males and 52 districts for females, while only two of the districts for males and 10 of those for females were reported as being "very bad." The next most satisfactory returns were for Color and Race, 55 districts for males and 40 for females being reported as "excellent."

Methods of Correction.

It must not be assumed that districts which upon examination disclosed omissions or errors were allowed to go forward to tabulation without correction. Those enumerators who lived within a short distance of Boston were called to the Census Office and required to make necessary additions or corrections at their own expense. To those more remote, typewritten sheets containing explanations of errors and omissions were sent, and the recipients were required to go over their districts and obtain the desired information. Besides these efforts to correct the returns, thousands of letters were sent to heads of families for more particular information concerning its members, and also to that large nomadic class known as "boarders and lodgers" from which the enumerators found the greatest difficulty in obtaining information.

Manner of Appointment.

The writer has had experience in four State Censuses and is obliged to declare that the ability and efficiency of the field force deteriorates with each enumeration. This fact indicates, probably, that the principal defect is in the manner of appointment. The plan of 1895 was followed in 1905, it not being deemed advisable to recommend an innovation upon one trial of a system. But two trials have conclusively demonstrated that the present manner of selection can be improved upon. Any citizen of a city or town, who has resided therein for not less than one year, and who is not less than 21 years of age, should be eligible for examination and for appointment if he passes the examination successfully and furnishes suitable references as to sobriety and good moral character.

Ratable Polls.

The Secretary of the Commonwealth receives each year from the Board of Assessors of each city and town a statement of the number of ratable polls as assessed on May 1 of each year. As the census work was begun on May 1, 1905, it seemed proper to bring into comparison the returns of polls as made by the assessors and those made by the census enumerators. The comparative figures for the 33 cities in the Commonwealth are shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV. Comparative Returns of Ratable Polls: By Cities.

CITIES.	RATABLE POLLS		Rate Per Poll	POLL TAX		Excess of Census over Assessors
	Assessors	Census		Assessors	Census	
Beverly, .	4,364	5,076	\$2	\$8,728	\$10,152	712
Boston, .	183,359	187,344	2	366,718	374,688	3,985
Brockton, .	14,568	15,267	2	29,136	30,534	699
Cambridge, .	26,696	29,852	2	53,392	59,704	3,156
Chelsea, .	10,336	11,315	2	20,672	22,630	979
Chicopee, .	5,280	5,972	2	10,560	11,944	692
Everett, .	8,115	8,557	2	16,230	17,114	442
Fall River, .	28,272	28,286	2	56,544	56,572	14
Fitchburg, .	9,054	9,877	2	18,108	19,754	823
Gloucester, .	8,015	8,975	2	16,030	17,950	960
Haverhill, .	11,264	11,623	2	22,528	23,246	359
Holyoke, .	12,175	13,418	2	24,350	26,836	1,243
Lawrence, .	18,230	20,579	2	36,460	41,158	2,349
Lowell, .	25,723	27,999	2	51,446	55,998	2,276
Lynn, .	24,456	25,608	2	48,912	51,216	1,152
Malden, .	10,535	10,698	2	21,070	21,396	163
Marlborough, .	4,214	4,199	2	8,428	8,398	15*
Medford, .	5,695	5,846	2	11,390	11,692	151
Melrose, .	4,235	4,109	2	8,470	8,218	126*
New Bedford, .	18,410	21,624	2	36,820	43,248	3,214
Newburyport, .	4,420	4,486	2	8,840	8,972	66
Newton, .	9,828	10,095	2	19,656	20,190	267
North Adams, .	5,200	6,143	2	10,400	12,286	943
Northampton, .	4,542	5,108	2	9,084	10,216	566
Pittsfield, .	6,370	7,638	2	13,740	15,276	768
Quincy, .	8,768	8,762	2	17,536	17,524	6*
Salem, .	10,788	10,878	2	21,576	21,756	90
Somerville, .	19,258	20,861	2	38,516	41,722	1,603
Springfield, .	21,061	22,802	2	42,122	45,604	1,741
Taunton, .	8,865	8,979	2	17,730	17,958	114
Waltham, .	7,202	7,600	2	14,404	15,200	398
Woburn, .	4,140	4,264	2	8,280	8,528	124
Worcester, .	36,718	39,223	2	73,436	78,446	2,505
TOTALS, .	580,656	613,063	\$2	\$1,161,312	\$1,226,126	32,407

* Decrease.

In the city of Marlborough the census enumerators reported 15 less ratable polls than did the assessors; in Melrose, 126 less; in Quincy, six less. In the other cities the number reported by the enumerators was in excess of that reported by the assessors. This fact is particularly noticeable in the instances of Boston, Cambridge, Lawrence, Lowell, New Bedford, and Worcester. In New Bedford the census enumerators reported 3,214 more ratable polls than did the assessors; in Springfield a similar excess of 1,741 is shown. The total excess for cities of the State is 32,407. At the rate of \$2 per poll, this indicates a loss to the cities included in the table of \$64,814.

The Bureau has endeavored to secure an explanation of these wide variations in figures. It would naturally be presumed that the assessors, who are engaged in the same work from year to year and intimately acquainted with their districts, would do more careful work in this line than census enumerators who are called upon to perform the duty for the State only once in 10 years. A partial explanation has been secured. It is stated on good authority that it is the custom in many cities and towns, and perhaps in all of them, to "neglect" to assess persons who, in the opinion of the assessors, are liable to become public charges. In case such a person insists upon being assessed, his name is entered upon the rolls and a bill is sent him, but at a subsequent meeting of the Board

of Assessors his tax is abated, and, as he is not called upon to pay it, he does not secure a settlement in the city or town. Now if any of these non-assessed persons do become public charges, as they have not been assessed or have not paid taxes in the respective cities and towns, they have not secured a settlement therein and consequently their support devolves upon the State. It would seem by this, to use no harsher term, that many of the cities and towns are shirking their responsibilities and are casting upon the citizens of the Commonwealth at large the burden which they, themselves, should bear.

Considering the excess of ratable polls reported by the census enumerators, the Bureau feels warranted in believing that Table IV furnishes strong evidence of the completeness and accuracy of the recent census enumeration.

Grade of Work Done: By Cities, Towns, and for the State.

Table V shows the condition of work done by counties. The table is followed by a recapitulation, showing the results for the cities as such and the towns as such.

TABLE V. *Kind of Work Done by Enumerators.* CENSUS OF 1905.

THE STATE AND COUNTIES.	Whole Number of Enumeration Districts	KIND OF WORK DONE BY ENUMERATORS—						
		Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Bad	Very Bad
THE STATE.	1,447	39	111	386	558	237	88	28
Barnstable,	16	—	—	8	7	1	—	—
Berkshire,	58	1	5	26	16	5	4	1
Bristol,	114	4	1	23	54	20	6	1
Dukes,	7	—	—	3	1	2	1	—
Essex,	168	4	7	47	63	36	9	2
Franklin,	33	1	3	16	13	—	—	—
Hampden,	96	1	10	23	34	21	1	6
Hampshire,	40	1	5	20	9	5	—	—
Middlesex,	272	6	19	64	108	56	18	1
Nantucket,	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	—
Norfolk,	80	2	1	22	39	14	2	—
Plymouth,	60	2	4	17	22	10	4	1
Suffolk,	317	13	44	65	110	46	31	8
Worcester,	185	4	12	47	81	21	12	8

RECAPITULATION. *The State, Cities, and Towns.*

THE STATE.	1,447	39	111	386	558	237	88	28
Cities,	907	24	73	192	354	179	68	17
Towns,	540	15	38	194	204	58	20	11

The "excellent" work, as regards completeness of schedules, was done in the following cities and towns, the figures in parentheses indicating the number of districts so credited.

BELMONT (1).	CAMBRIDGE (2).	FALL RIVER (1).
BERLIN (1).	Chelmsford (1).	HAMPDEN (1).
BOSTON (10).	CHELSEA (3).	HAVERHILL (1).
Bridgewater (1).	Cohasset (1).	Maynard (1).
Burlington (1).	Danvers (1).	Middleton (1).

New Ashford (1).	QUINCY (1).	TAUNTON (2).
NEWBURYPORT (1).	Raynham (1).	WORCESTER (2).
New Salem (1).	Rutland (1).	TOTAL, 39.
NORTHAMPTON (1).	Scituate (1).	

The "very bad" work was done in the following cities and towns:

Attleborough (1).	LAWRENCE (2).	Webster (3).
BOSTON (8).	NEWTON (1).	West Stockbridge (1).
CHICOPEE (3).	Scituate (1).	Winchendon (1).
HOLYOKE (3).	Southbridge (2).	TOTAL, 28.
Hopedale (1).	Templeton (1).	

Of the 39 instances of "excellent" work, 24 were in cities and 15 in towns. Of the 28 instances of "very bad" work, 17 were in cities and 11 in towns.

Census Estimates based upon Polls, School Children, Dwelling-houses, etc.

When the results for a census are declared there appear, inevitably, what may be called census "estimators" who figure out in a way satisfactory to themselves that the population should be greater than as reported. The usual bases for these estimates are "polls" and "school children," although "water-takers" and "new residences" are sometimes utilized. Now these methods of computation might be of some value if there was any definite, *unchanging* ratio between these bases and the population. The fact is, these ratios change with every census, and cannot be accurately determined until the census results are known.

Take "polls," for instance. If each poll had a definite and fixed size of family, the computation would be absolutely correct. But, in a city, there may be one thousand or more young men, unmarried probably, who are ratable polls, but have no family. How misleading, and unscientific, to multiply this number by the average size of family and claim that the people must be there because the polls are there.

As regards "school children," however, we will allow a large increase in their number. The "estimator" then figures two parents to each child, which is correct from one point of view, but incorrect when we consider that six children in the public schools may have but two (the same) parents.

The computation on the basis of "water-takers" seems destitute of a single attribute contributing to statistical accuracy. So, also, in the case of "new residences" the computation is valueless unless the average population per house always remains the same, which no one will contend, and unless the number of vacant houses and tenements with their population when occupied is known. It is a fixed principle in mathematics that a certain number of quantities must be known before unknown

quantities can be accurately determined, and statistics are founded upon mathematics and subject to the same general rules.

With a view of presenting mathematically and statistically the relations between polls and school children, tables have been prepared for each city and town, which will be printed in full in the Census volumes. Only the cities will be given here, owing to lack of space, and to the fact that the "estimators" usually devote their attention to the returns for cities.

TABLE VI. *Comparison of Estimated Population, based on Poll Ratio, with Actual Population: By Cities.*

CITIES.	Population to each Ratable Poll (Census of 1895)	Ratable Polls (Census of 1905)	Estimated Population in 1905 based on Poll Ratio of 1895	Actual Population (Census of 1905)	Excess of Estimate (E) or Actual (A)
Beverly,	3.12	5,076	15,837	15,223	E
Boston,	3.18	187,344	595,754	595,280	E
Brockton,	3.10	15,267	47,328	47,794	A
Cambridge,	3.25	29,852	97,019	97,434	A
Chelsea,	3.21	11,315	36,321	37,289	A
Chicopee,	3.28	5,972	19,588	20,191	A
Everett,	3.36	8,557	28,752	29,111	A
Fall River,	3.75	28,286	106,073	105,762	E
Fitchburg,	3.32	9,877	32,792	33,021	A
Gloucester,	2.38	8,975	21,361	26,011	A
Haverhill,	*3.22	11,623	*37,426	37,830	A
Holyoke,	3.75	13,418	50,318	49,934	E
Lawrence,	3.40	20,579	69,969	70,050	A
Lowell,	3.55	27,999	99,396	94,889	E
Lynn,	3.14	25,608	80,409	77,042	E
Malden,	3.35	10,698	35,838	38,037	A
Marlborough,	3.35	4,199	14,067	14,073	A
Medford,	3.22	5,846	18,524	19,686	A
Melrose,	3.36	4,109	13,806	14,295	A
New Bedford,	3.50	21,624	75,684	74,362	E
Newburyport,	3.46	4,486	15,522	14,675	E
Newton,	3.50	10,095	35,333	36,827	A
North Adams,	3.46	6,143	21,255	22,150	A
Northampton,	3.86	5,108	19,717	19,957	A
Pittsfield,	3.39	7,638	25,893	25,001	E
Quincy,	3.25	8,762	28,477	28,076	E
Salem,	3.38	10,878	36,768	37,627	A
Somerville,	3.27	20,861	68,215	69,272	A
Springfield,	3.24	22,802	73,878	73,540	E
Taunton,	3.50	8,979	31,427	30,967	E
Waltham,	3.45	7,600	26,220	26,282	A
Woburn,	3.40	4,264	14,498	14,402	E
Worcester,	3.33	39,223	130,613	128,135	E

* Includes Bradford, a town in 1895.

In 19 of the 33 cities the actual population returned in 1905 is in excess of an estimated population based on the poll ratio from the Census of 1895, while in the case of 14 cities the population so estimated is larger than the actual returns.

We now bring the 14 cities, in which the estimated population was greater than the actual, into a table so as to establish a true poll ratio to population for 1905. The 19 cities in which the actual population was greater than the estimated require a similar refiguring of the poll ratio, but the results are not needed in the present consideration of the question.

TABLE VII. *Changes in Ratio of Polls to Population—1905.*

CITIES.	Estimated Population in 1905	Actual Population in 1905	Poll Ratio in 1895	Actual Poll Ratio in 1905	Decreases in 1905 as Compared with 1895
Beverly,	15,837	15,223	3.12	3.00	0.12
Boston,	595,754	595,380	3.18	3.18	*=
Fall River,	106,073	105,762	3.75	3.74	0.01
Holyoke,	50,313	49,934	3.75	3.72	0.03
Lowell,	99,396	94,889	3.55	3.39	0.16
Lynn,	80,409	77,042	3.14	3.01	0.13
New Bedford,	75,684	74,362	3.50	3.44	0.06
Newburyport,	15,522	14,675	3.46	3.27	0.19
Pittsfield,	25,893	25,001	3.39	3.27	0.12
Quincy,	28,477	28,076	3.25	3.20	0.05
Springfield,	73,875	73,540	3.24	3.23	0.01
Taunton,	31,427	30,967	3.50	3.45	0.05
Woburn,	14,498	14,402	3.40	3.38	0.02
Worcester,	130,613	128,135	3.33	3.27	0.06
TOTALS,	1,343,779	1,327,388	-	-	-

* No change.

From this table we learn that the ratio of population to polls *decreased* in each of the 14 cities except Boston, where the ratio remained the same as in 1895, the variation between the estimated and actual population being but 374. This furnishes conclusive proof that to have an estimate of population based on the poll ratio approximate to the real population, the poll ratio for the two census years considered must be the same or very nearly so.

Of the 319 towns considered, the estimated population, based upon the poll ratio of 1895, was greater in 170, less in 148, and the same in one. The new towns of Plainville and Westwood are not considered.

When the cities as a whole, the towns as a whole, and the State as a unit are considered, the plus and minus variations counterbalance each other, and we obtain the results shown in the following table:

TABLE VIII. *Population and Polls, with Ratios: Censuses of 1895 and 1905.*

CLASSIFICATION.	Cities	Towns	The State
Total population in 1895,	1,652,468	847,715	2,500,183
Ratable polls in 1895,	*501,234	264,949	766,233
Population to each ratable poll in 1895,	3.30	3.20	3.26
Ratable polls in 1905,	613,063	306,720	919,783
Estimated population in 1905 based upon the poll ratio of 1895,	2,024,378	982,895	3,007,273
Actual population in 1905,	2,024,325	979,355	3,003,680

* Includes Bradford and Melrose.

The estimated population exceeded the actual by 3,593. This is due to an excess of 53 in the case of the cities, and 3,540 in the case of the towns, the total excess being, as before stated, 3,593. The conclusion is thus inevitable, that when the poll ratio of a preceding census is applied to the aggregate polls of all the cities, or all the towns, or the entire State, the estimated and actual figures *may* very nearly agree, but this result *may or may not* be true in the case of a single city or town.

We will next consider estimates based upon the number of children in the *public* schools, for those who make such estimates have no means of knowing the number of children in private schools, those taught at home, or those not being taught at all. We present, first, a table for the 33 cities.

TABLE IX. *Comparison of Estimated Population, based upon Number of School Children with Actual Population: By Cities.*

CITIES.	Popu- lation to each Child 1895	School Children in 1900	Estimated Popula- tion 1900 based on Child Ratio of 1895	Actual Population 1900	Excess of Estimate (E) or Actual (A)
Beverly,	6.22	2,302	14,318	13,884	E
Boston,	6.44	90,144	580,527	560,892	E
Brockton,	5.97	7,055	42,118	40,063	E
Cambridge,	6.34	15,131	95,931	91,886	E
Chelsea,	5.89	6,023	35,475	34,072	E
Chicopee,	6.35	3,072	19,507	19,167	E
Everett,	5.63	4,456	25,087	24,336	E
Fall River,	5.11	21,512	109,926	104,863	E
Fitchburg,	5.49	6,036	33,138	31,531	E
Gloucester,	7.23	4,168	30,135	26,121	E
Haverhill,	*6.02	5,842	35,169	37,175	A
Holyoke,	4.86	9,479	46,068	45,712	E
Lawrence,	5.63	10,527	59,267	62,559	A
Lowell,	6.32	14,710	92,967	94,969	A
Lynn,	6.16	10,595	65,265	68,513	A
Malden,	6.06	6,052	36,675	33,664	E
Marlborough,	5.28	2,797	14,768	13,609	E
Medford,	6.58	3,264	21,477	18,244	E
Melrose,	6.22	2,066	12,851	12,962	A
New Bedford,	5.48	11,319	62,028	62,442	A
Newburyport,	6.11	2,350	14,359	14,478	A
Newton,	5.62	5,336	29,988	33,587	A
North Adams,	5.56	4,565	25,381	24,200	E
Northampton,	6.46	2,925	18,896	18,643	E
Pittsfield,	5.38	3,892	20,939	21,766	A
Quincy,	4.53	5,099	23,098	23,899	A
Salem,	6.17	6,188	38,180	35,956	E
Somerville,	6.13	10,466	64,157	61,643	E
Springfield,	6.41	10,251	65,709	62,059	E
Taunton,	5.75	5,131	29,503	31,036	A
Waltham,	6.48	3,778	24,481	23,481	E
Woburn,	4.49	3,220	14,458	14,254	E
Worcester,	5.60	20,296	113,658	118,421	A

* Includes Bradford, a town in 1895.

In 21 cities the estimates based upon the number of children in the public schools are in excess of the actual population as determined by the Census, while in 12 cities the actual population exceeded the estimates. Considering the towns we find the estimates were in excess in 165 and less than the actual in 154, nearly an equal division.

As in the case of "polls" we present a table showing the results for all the cities, all the towns, and the State as a unit.

TABLE X. *Population and School Children, with Ratios: Censuses of 1895 and 1900.*

CLASSIFICATION.	Cities	Towns	The State
Total population in 1895,	*1,652,468	847,715	2,500,183
Number of school children in 1895,	276,174	141,161	417,335
Population to each child in 1895,	5.98	6.01	5.99
Number of school children in 1900,	320,047	154,180	474,227
Estimated population in 1900 based on child ratio of 1895,	1,915,594	934,542	2,850,046
Actual population in 1900,	1,880,087	925,259	2,805,346

* Includes Bradford and Melrose.

The estimated population exceeded the actual by 44,700; of this excess 35,417 was in the cities and 9,283 in the towns.

Another method employed by the estimators in figuring population is to take the number of dwelling-houses, multiply this figure by the presumed number of occupants to each house, and present the result as the true population—and one which the Census should equal, and presumably surpass. When the preliminary count was announced for the last Census, it was claimed by the estimators in a certain city, who figured on the basis of the number of dwelling-houses, that the population of the city should have been at least 5,000 greater than was reported. Although the number of unoccupied houses and tenements had not, at that time, been ascertained, it was deemed advisable to make a special tabulation, which was done, with the following result:

Number of unoccupied houses and tenements,	741
Number of rooms unoccupied,	5,240
Unoccupied houses (number of rooms not stated),	263
Total number of unoccupied houses or tenements,	1,004

If each unoccupied room had contained one person, the population of the city would have been increased by 5,240. If each unoccupied house or tenement had had, on the average, five inmates, the population of the city would have been increased by 5,020.

The estimators considered positive indications only, and paid no attention to the negative side of the question.

Cost of the Population Census of 1905.

The total cost of the enumeration of the people in the Census of 1905 was \$160,661.53. The respective cost in the cities and in the towns, with the principal details of expenditure, is given in the table which follows:

TABLE XI. *Cost of Population Enumeration—Census of 1905: By Cities, Towns, and for the State.*

CLASSIFICATION.	Cities	Towns	The State
Population in 1905,	2,024,325	979,355	3,003,680
Paid for travel,	\$975.39	\$2,292.95	\$3,268.34
Paid interpreters,	\$1,229.11	\$366.45	\$1,595.56
Cost of enumeration,	\$104,544.80	\$50,125.76	\$154,670.56
Other expenses,	\$717.96	\$409.11	\$1,127.07
Total cost,	\$107,467.26	\$53,194.27	\$160,661.53
Cost per name,	\$0.05308	\$0.05431	\$0.05348

The enumerators were paid \$3 for each nine hours' work. The cost of enumeration, \$154,670.56, therefore, represents 464,012 hours' work. The number of persons enumerated being 3,003,680, the average per hour was very nearly 6½, or less than 10 minutes for each person, including the time taken for travel from house to house, for entering the

particulars concerning the family as a whole, and the filling of the special schedule relating to the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes.

We present, next, a table showing the cost per name for enumeration in 1895 and 1905, with comparisons, for the 33 cities.

TABLE XII. *Cost of Enumeration of the Population: Censuses of 1895 and 1905.*

CITIES.	Total Cost of Enumeration in 1905	COST PER NAME		Increases 1905 as Compared with 1895
		1895	1905	
Beverly,	\$747.59	\$0.039	\$0.049	\$0.010
Boston,	31,443.18	.037	.053	.016
Brockton,	2,323.47	.039	.049	.010
Cambridge,	5,606.55	.035	.058	.023
Chelsea,	2,146.08	.033	.058	.025
Chicopee,	1,075.74	.044	.053	.009
Everett,	1,266.79	.032	.044	.012
Fall River,	4,994.99	.035	.047	.012
Fitchburg,	1,407.72	.042	.043	.001
Gloucester,	1,196.19	.033	.046	.013
Haverhill,	2,022.77	*.036	.053	.017
Holyoke,	3,077.88	.038	.062	.024
Lawrence,	3,509.47	.038	.050	.012
Lowell,	5,331.72	.036	.056	.020
Lynn,	3,520.10	.039	.046	.007
Malden,	1,617.43	.033	.043	.010
Marlborough,	612.43	.032	.044	.012
Medford,	1,023.52	.040	.052	.012
Melrose,	615.61	.036	.043	.007
New Bedford,	4,022.97	.045	.054	.009
Newburyport,	966.01	.044	.066	.022
Newton,	1,861.84	.037	.051	.014
North Adams,	1,213.81	.031	.055	.024
Northampton,	1,119.27	.047	.056	.009
Pittsfield,	1,499.00	.035	.060	.025
Quincy,	1,718.26	.040	.061	.021
Salem,	1,838.78	.035	.049	.014
Somerville,	3,406.36	.038	.049	.011
Springfield,	4,279.88	.043	.058	.015
Taunton,	1,541.37	.041	.050	.009
Waltham,	1,278.26	.032	.049	.017
Woburn,	730.64	.030	.051	.021
Worcester,	8,451.53	.040	.066	.026

* Includes Bradford.

All the cities show an increased cost in 1905. Of 318 towns considered, 267 showed an increase in cost per name in 1905; in 46 towns the cost was less, and in five the cost was the same in both Censuses. Two new towns, and one for which no report was made in 1895, are omitted from the comparison.

Schedules and Instruction Books.

The table which follows contains the schedule numbers, a description of their contents, the number of inquiries, and the number of spaces for possible answers.

TABLE XIII. *Number and Description of Schedules: Census of 1905.*

Schedule Numbers	DESCRIPTION OF SCHEDULES.	Number of Inquiries	Spaces for Possible Replies
I	Population: Family,	24	71
I	Population: Males,	42	65
I	Population: Females,	47	51
I*	Defective, Dependent, and Delinquent Classes,	160	161
II	Manufactures: General,	13	173

TABLE XIII. *Number and Description of Schedules: Census of 1905*
— Concluded.

Schedule Numbers	DESCRIPTION OF SCHEDULES.	Number of Inquiries	Spaces for Possible Replies
III	Trade,	13	83
IV	Agriculture,	24	542
IV ^a	Agriculture, Mines, Quarries, etc.,	11	304
V	The Fisheries,	163	336
VI	Commerce: Coastwise and Ocean,	40	40
VII	Libraries and Reading Rooms,	46	74
VIII	Public Schools,	3	45
VIII	Private Schools,	23	25
TOTALS,		609	1,970

As provided by the Census Law the schedules are eight in number. Schedule No. I had four divisions, Schedule No. IV had two, and Schedule No. VIII had two, making a total of 13 divisions. The aggregate number of inquiries on all the schedules was 609, while the number of blank spaces provided for possible answers was 1,970. This does not mean that any one individual had to answer all these inquiries. A farmer might raise only 10 products, but spaces must be provided for all the products that all the farmers raise. So with The Fisheries — a fisherman may catch only a few kinds of fish, but the schedule must have blank spaces for fish of all kinds.

Schedule No. I, Special, had 14 sections devoted to Acute Diseases, Chronic Diseases, Consumption, the Blind, Deaf, Dumb, and Deaf and Dumb, Maimed, Lame, and Deformed, Feeble-minded, Insane, Epileptic, and Other Defective Physical Condition, besides Prisoners, Juvenile Offenders, Paupers, and Neglected and Dependent Children, but, of course, only those sections were filled, and inquiries answered, which applied to the individual; the same explanation is applicable to the other schedules and inquiries.

The Instruction Book for Enumerators who took the census of population contained 75 pages, 86 sections, and explanations of and instructions concerning 139 subjects.

The Instruction Book for the Special Agents who took the statistics of agriculture had 24 pages, 65 sections being devoted to explanations and instructions. The Index contained the names of 469 articles included under the general heading of Agricultural Products and Property.

Schedules and Printed Material Used.

The number of Schedules used in the Census, to date, is 5,229,500. The number of each kind is given in Table XIV.

TABLE XIV. *Description of Schedules Used in the Census of 1905, with Quantities.*

Schedule Numbers	DESCRIPTION OF SCHEDULES.	Quantities Used
I	Family Schedule,	900,000
I	Schedule for Males,	1,968,000
I	Schedule for Females,	2,052,000
I*	Special (Defective, Dependent, and Delinquent Classes),	109,000
II	Manufactures,	26,000
III	Trade,	46,500
IV	Agriculture (general),	50,000
IVa	Agriculture (special),	50,000
V	The Fisheries (general),	5,000
V	The Fisheries (vessels and boats),	10,000
VI	Commerce (general),	1,600
VI	Commerce (vessels and boats),	2,800
VII	Libraries and Reading Rooms,	6,400
VIII	Public Schools,	500
VIII	Private Schools,	1,700
TOTAL,		5,229,500

* Special.

In Table XV is given a description of the printed material used between June 15, 1904, and February 15, 1906, with the number of each article.

TABLE XV. *Description of Printed Material, and Quantities Used between June 15, 1904, and February 15, 1906.*

CLASSIFICATION.	Quan-tities Used	CLASSIFICATION.	Quan-tities Used
Double sheets,	34,220	Postal cards,	2,000
Single sheets,	79,159	Post cards,	28,300
Half sheets,	159,000	Labels and receipts,	16,600
Quarter sheets,	191,590	Gummed sheets,	4,750
Census laws,	2,680	Census Bulletins (Nos. 1-5),	2,600
Envelopes (all kinds),	212,000		
Instruction books and pamphlets,	3,240		
Cards (all kinds),	123,500	TOTAL,	859,639

The 5,229,500 schedules, and the 859,639 pieces of printed matter make a total of 6,089,139. When the reader reflects that all this material was required to be filled in accordance with instructions, then examined, corrected, recorded, and tabulated, he can form some idea of the magnitude of such an undertaking, and appreciate the system which keeps this vast array of records in an orderly condition, allowing ready reference, and the speedy and accurate compilation of the statistics called for by the Census law.

Special Censuses.

For the information and guidance of cities or towns desiring a special census for local purposes, the following extract from the Revised Laws of the Commonwealth is given.

SECTION 3, CHAPTER 107, REVISED LAWS.

The chief of said bureau, upon the request of the mayor and aldermen of a city or the selectmen of a town, shall cause an enumeration to be made within three months thereafter, showing the number of inhabitants and legal voters in each street, square or avenue of such city or town, or in such

blocks or sections thereof as may be agreed upon by said chief and the mayor and aldermen or selectmen, and he shall report the result thereof to the city or town clerk. The expense of such special enumeration shall be paid by the commonwealth, and the treasurer and receiver general shall thereupon issue his warrant requiring the assessors of such city or town to assess a tax to the amount of such expense and the same shall be collected and paid over in the same manner as other state taxes.

Conclusion.

The amount appropriated for the Census of 1905, \$421,000, may seem large; brought to a *per capita* basis for a population of 3,003,680, it is but 14.02 cents. For this one-seventh of a dollar the State places in every town clerk's office, in every City Hall, in every public library, and in the hands of many of its citizens printed volumes giving the latest statistics concerning the population, and its social and industrial condition. It should also be borne in mind that all of the Census money is paid to citizens of Massachusetts for services rendered or goods supplied, forming an industry in itself.

Consider the dearth if this information was not collected. It is argued, with some force, that the United States gathers this information once in 10 years and all that Massachusetts needs is an enumeration of the population and voters as required by the Constitution. To this it may be answered :

1. The United States Census necessarily makes arbitrary distinctions in its presentations which bar out the small towns from many showings.
2. Its statistics of farm property and products always show a less value than do the State returns.
3. It does not collect statistics of The Fisheries or Ocean and Coast-wise Commerce.
4. It does not collect statistics of Trade.
5. Its reports do not include Libraries and Reading Rooms, or Schools and School Property.
6. It does not present its statistics of Manufactures in a way to allow of comparison with the annual statistics of manufacturing industries compiled by the State.
7. Its classification of occupations is so condensed as to be useless in the preparation of State tables of wages or earnings.
8. It cannot, under the law governing it, include in its schedules such special features as have been enumerated as forming part of the State Census of 1905.
9. Finally, its reports cannot secure that wide circulation that is possible through the medium of the State Census Bulletins, the Annual Bureau Report, the Labor Bulletin, published bi-monthly, and the Census volumes themselves, which, as before stated, are placed within easy reach of the people for reference.

THE TRUE BASIS OF POLITICAL REPRESENTATION.

In a recent article in a Massachusetts newspaper the question of political power and its presumed influence on "race suicide" was considered. The aim of the writer was, evidently, to show that the true basis of political representation was *population* and not the number of *legal voters*, and that basing representation on legal voters deprived the family of its rightful political influence.

The following extracts from the article in question will show its trend :

The most acute issue which the British government has to face in determining the character of the new constitution in the Transvaal has a very broad bearing. Under the new representative and responsible government which must soon be inaugurated in the country conquered in the Boer war the distribution of political power will depend very largely upon the settlement of this question of the basis of representation in the colonial Parliament. A situation of considerable interest has arisen. Those familiar with South African conditions do not need to be told that the British population of the Transvaal is centered in the mining district, and that this population is overwhelmingly composed of men without families. "A garrison of bachelors, rather than a city of homes," is one way of describing the city of Johannesburg. The Boers, scattered over the veldt, on the other hand, are invariably married and have large families. This important difference in the social and family life of the British and Boer elements has precipitated the present clash over the basis of representation under the new constitution. The mining interests, which were supported by Lord Milner and the late unionist government at London, demand that the representation shall be based solely upon the number of voters, which would give to the "garrison of bachelors" a greater political power than under a system of representation based upon the whole population. The Boers are naturally clamoring for the population basis, because, with their women and children counted, the number of members accorded them would be much increased.

The cry of "one vote, one value," raised by the old outlander element, and strenuously indorsed by the British imperialist party for obvious reasons, is theoretically sound, if it can be applied under fair and equal conditions. But so long as women are disfranchised in a state, it does seem a piece of insolence for the men who, as a body, are without matrimonial ties, to make such a demand. In Great Britain itself, ever since the reform bill of 1832, in the United States, and in all of the self-governing British colonies the basis of representation is the total population, and not simply the total number of voters. The theory of this is that while all the people of a community may not be enfranchised, as a body they bear the burdens of the state and should have representation in size proportional to their numerical aggregate. Thus the women and the children are at least represented indirectly through the adult males. An exception should be made of the commonwealth of Australia, but only to a degree that signifies nothing in principle. For while in Australia representation is now based on voting population, the women there are fully enfranchised.

The new liberal government of Great Britain has not yet fully determined upon its policy regarding this question in the Transvaal, and it is apparent that it may be somewhat embarrassed in reaching a decision. The extreme imperialists are sure to attack it for surrendering the fruits of the Boer war, if the representation in the Transvaal Parliament should now be fixed on the basis of the white population. Yet the liberals seem likely to do this, and to justify themselves on the ground that it is the basis of representation at home and nearly everywhere that the self-governing institutions of the English-speaking people have taken root. And such a decision would seem to be righteous in the case of the Transvaal. The fact that the bulk of the old outlander element are without wives and children is not only their misfortune, but to their positive discredit. There is no sound reason why the Boers should be penalized for their wholesome domesticity. There is as little reason for rewarding the "garrison of bachelors" for its promotion of race suicide.

It is interesting to consider what would be the effect upon political representation in Massachusetts if the number of senators and representa-

tives was allotted to the cities and towns on the basis of population instead of, as now, on the number of legal voters as fixed by the State Constitution.

The table which follows shows the number of senators and representatives to each city, and for "all the towns," on the basis of population and, also, on that of legal voters.

CITIES AND "ALL TOWNS."	NUMBER OF REPRESENTATIVES ON BASIS OF—		NUMBER OF SENATORS ON BASIS OF—		GAIN (+), OR LOSS (-), ON POPU- LATION BASIS OF—	
	Population	Legal Voters	Population	Legal Voters	Representa- tives	Senators
Beverly,	1.22	1.35	0.20	0.22	—	—
Boston,	47.57	49.71	7.93	8.28	—	—
Brockton,	3.82	4.30	0.64	0.72	—	—
Cambridge,	7.79	7.84	1.30	1.31	—	—
Chelsea,	2.98	2.79	0.50	0.47	+	+
Chicopee,	1.62	1.29	0.27	0.20	+	+
Everett,	2.33	2.38	0.39	0.40	—	—
Fall River,	8.45	6.35	1.41	1.06	+	+
Fitchburg,	2.64	2.26	0.44	0.38	+	+
Gloucester,	2.08	2.25	0.35	0.38	—	—
Haverhill,	3.02	3.26	0.50	0.54	—	—
Holyoke,	3.99	3.21	0.66	0.53	+	+
Lawrence,	5.60	4.75	0.93	0.79	+	+
Lowell,	7.58	6.64	1.26	1.11	+	+
Lynn,	6.16	6.95	1.03	1.16	—	—
Malden,	3.04	3.03	0.51	0.51	+	*=
Marlborough,	1.12	1.22	0.19	0.20	—	—
Medford,	1.57	1.69	0.28	0.28	—	—
Me Rose,	1.14	1.23	0.19	0.21	—	—
New Bedford,	5.94	4.61	0.99	0.77	+	+
Newburyport,	1.17	1.34	0.20	0.22	—	—
Newton,	2.94	2.78	0.49	0.46	+	+
North Adams,	1.77	1.65	0.29	0.27	+	+
Northampton,	1.59	1.35	0.27	0.22	+	+
Pittsfield,	2.00	2.18	0.33	0.36	—	—
Quincy,	2.24	2.14	0.37	0.36	+	+
Salem,	3.01	2.97	0.50	0.50	+	*=
Somerville,	5.54	5.66	0.92	0.94	—	—
Springfield,	5.88	6.19	0.98	1.03	—	—
Taunton,	2.47	2.38	0.41	0.40	+	+
Waltham,	2.10	2.07	0.35	0.35	+	*=
Woburn,	1.15	1.21	0.19	0.20	—	—
Worcester,	10.24	9.95	1.71	1.66	+	+
"All Towns,"	78.25	81.11	13.04	13.52	—	—

* No change.

As regards "senators," on the basis of population as compared with legal voters, 14 cities would gain in number, 16 would lose, while three would experience no change.

Concerning "representatives," 17 cities would gain in number, while 16 would lose. The towns, as a whole, would lose on the population basis.

The local variations are interesting. Boston would lose two representatives; Fall River would gain two, Lawrence and Lowell very nearly one, and New Bedford one. The other variations are nominal.

The only noticeable variation, as regards senators, occurs in Springfield, which on the basis of legal voters is entitled to 1.03 senators, but on the population basis to only 0.98, or less than one.

It would be supposed, naturally, that the great excess of females (80,502) in the State would have a more appreciable effect; but they are, evidently, very evenly distributed throughout, while the number of legal voters is commensurate with population increases.

THE RESTRICTION OF IMMIGRATION.

In Labor Bulletin No. 39, for January, 1906, an article entitled "Massachusetts Immigrants" was given, and in the same volume, under the head of "Current Comment," the opinions of well-known citizens in regard to the general subject of immigration were presented.

In order that all phases of the question may be presented to the readers of the Bulletin, we give in this article the opinions of several persons who think that our national immigration laws are not sufficiently strict and that additional provisions, looking to a still further exclusion of the immigrant classes, should be added to existing laws.

We present, first, an address delivered before the Immigration Conference, in New York City, held in December, 1905, by Mr. Prescott F. Hall, Chairman of the Massachusetts Delegation to the Conference and Secretary of the Immigration Restriction League.

Mr. Chairman and Gentlemen:

The question before us is one of the most important with which this country or any country has to deal. In so far as the action which this convention may take shall have any effect upon public opinion and upon Congress, a solemn responsibility rests upon us to give the matter our earnest consideration and our most conscientious judgment.

For, gentlemen, immigration is not merely a question of individual immigrants. It affects the character of the future population of this continent to an extent to which the average citizen little dreams. From one point of view, indeed, the history of the United States is the history of the effects of European immigration. How valuable this has been, in adding to the wealth and power of the country, every one knows and gladly acknowledges; and it is not without a deep appreciation of the fact that I shall call attention to certain effects, especially of recent years, of which the value is less obvious; which, indeed, constitute a real and menacing danger to our institutions and organic life.

The racial effects of immigration are more far-reaching and potent than all others. The government, the state, society, industry, the political party, social and political ideals—all are concepts and conventions created by individual men; and when individuals change these change with them. Recent discoveries in biology show that in the long run heredity is far more important than environment or education; for, though the latter can develop, it cannot create. They also show what can be done in a few years in altering species, and in producing new ones with qualities hitherto unknown, or unknown in combination.

The dangers from immigration are two-fold. The world as a whole is improving, but certain parts of it are improving faster than other parts, and the United States is in many respects in the van of progress. Inferior immigration may, in the first place, retard this progress. In sufficiently large numbers it may, in the second place, not merely prevent all progress but undermine the ideals and institutions which we have already created.

At the present time, apart from education, the attempts to improve our people are chiefly in two directions. The first, universally practised, is the segregation and, to a slight extent, the elimination of the dependent and delinquent classes. Insane and dangerous criminals are more or less successfully segregated and prevented from propagation during the period of their incarceration. But against this benefit must be set the fact that our charities, and even our penal institutions, keep alive large numbers whom natural forces would once have eliminated. Epidemics which once carried off many of the best citizens also removed more of the worst, and war still removes many of the strongest. To-day the feeble, the anaemic live. Furthermore, many of our prisoners and insane, detained for long periods, have had children before their segregation.

The first method of improving the people of a State is, then, segregation within its limits. The second method is segregation by refusing entrance into the nation from without. Where migration

small in numbers takes place between nations of equal age, who have been long settled, this method is less important than the first. But a new nation derives its whole character and has its whole future determined by its first settlers; and when subsequent immigration takes place on a scale large in relation to the total population, equally far-reaching changes may be made in the nation's institutions and ideals. What is impressed upon two men will produce widely different results, according to the way they react towards it; and this reaction depends upon those vast, vague undercurrents of life which are largely determined by heredity. Education, imitation of others, will do much to produce outward conformity, but racial characteristics will withstand the influence of centuries.

The point is dwelt upon because, although the value of artificial selection in breeding animals, in producing seedless fruits and new grain—in fact nearly every department—is now generally recognized, and although some advanced persons talk of regulating marriage with a view to the elimination of the unfit for other purposes than mere survival, yet most people fail to realize that in the United States through our power to regulate immigration we have a unique opportunity to exercise artificial selection on an enormous scale. We started with immigrants of the best stock of Europe, selected naturally by the perils of the voyage and the hardships of life in a new country. The possible danger from too careless an attitude toward the selection of race stocks for the future population of this country has been thus stated by the President of the Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants.

"If one considers the American people from say 1775 to 1860, it is clear that a well-defined national character was in process of formation. What variations there were, were all of the same type, and these variations would have slowly grown less and less marked. It needs little study to see of what great value to any body of men, women, and children a national or racial type is. It furnishes a standard of conduct by which any one can set his course. The world is a difficult place in which to live, and to establish moral standards has been one of the chief occupations of mankind. Without such standards, man feels as a mariner without a compass. Religions, rules, laws and customs are only the national character in the form of standards of conduct. Now national character can only be formed in a population which is stable. The repeated introduction into a body of men of other men of different type or types, cannot but tend to prevent its formation. Thus the nineteen millions of immigrants that have landed have tended to break up the type which was forming, and to make the formation of any other type difficult. Every million will only intensify the result, and the absence of a national character is a loss to every man, woman, and child. It will show itself in our religion, rules of conduct, in our laws, in our customs."

In the United States we have the opportunity to try the effect of hybridization upon an enormous scale. The question as to the racial effects of immigration is not, as most people assume, a question between us and the immigrants, but between our children and grandchildren and theirs. We are trustees for the future, and with us is the decision what races and what kind of men shall inherit this country for years after we are gone.

Such being the opportunities and the dangers of a change of race-stocks, we have now to consider how far the dangers are real.

The first danger of emigration, as at present regulated, is the fact that its selection is left almost entirely to the steamship companies. One hundred and eighteen million dollars of capital, chiefly foreign, is engaged in this business, and as the profit on each emigrant is from \$15 to \$20, in ordinary times, the inducement to select any one and every one who can possibly pass an inspection and bring them to this country is apparent. Fifty or even thirty years ago the expense and hardships of the voyage acted as a sieve to screen out undesirables. By undesirable emigration I mean that which is ignorant of a trade, which is lacking in resources; which has criminal tendencies; which is averse to country life and tends to congregate in the slums of large cities; which has a low standard of living and lacks ambition to seek a better; which fails to assimilate, within a reasonable time, and which has no permanent interest in this country. To-day the presumption is completely reversed, as Gen. Francis A. Walker said:

"The present pipe-line emigration will not cease unless regulated by law so long as any difference of economic level exists between our population and that of the most degraded communities abroad."

Instead, therefore, of receiving the best elements of foreign peoples, in a normal flow of emigration, there is to-day an artificial selection of the unfit by the steamship companies.

It is not strange that this process should result in manifest evils, and it is significant that in general emigration legislation was found unnecessary until some years after the present flow of relatively undesirable aliens had begun.

The result of this influx of relatively undesirable aliens is shown in the large numbers of persons who are diseased, insane and criminal at the time of landing, or become so shortly afterward. The average physique of the emigrant, according to the most reliable experts, has very much deteriorated in the last forty years. Among recent emigrants one Hebrew in forty-two was certified as having serious physical defects, and one Syrian in twenty-nine. Although certified for minor defects having some bearing upon the ability of the emigrant to earn a livelihood, there was one Italian in twenty-six, one Syrian in twenty-four, one Hebrew in sixteen. The proportion of emigrants sent to the hospital in proportion to the landed was, for Hebrew, one in ninety, for Italian, one in one

hundred and seventy-seven. Contrast this with the Scandinavian race which formed much of the emigrants of fifty years ago, and of whom there was sent to the hospital only one in seven hundred and fifteen. I find that, comparing the male prisoners with males of voting age, those of foreign birth and parentage contributed three times as many prisoners as those of native birth and parentage, while the foreign-born contributed more than twice as many prisoners as the native white of native birth and parentage.

It is often said that, however it may be with the original immigrants, their children become good citizens. That this is a fallacy is shown by the fact that of juvenile prisoners in the North Atlantic division those of native birth and parentage furnish 855 per million, the native children of foreign parentage 2,740 per million, and the foreign-born 2,252 per million. In certain special regions like the mining regions of Pennsylvania and our large cities, the figures as to criminality are more striking. In the anthracite regions from 1880 to 1890 the convictions increased nearly 10 per cent more than the population, and the proportion of Slav criminals increased nearly 25 per cent more than the Slav population. In Massachusetts the foreign-born population furnishes three times as many prisoners as those of native birth and parentage, and those of foreign birth and parentage furnish 10 times as many prisoners as the natives. As regards insanity, the foreign-born furnish $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the normal proportion of insane. The proportion of paupers who are foreign-born is increasing. As compared with the male population of voting age, the foreign whites furnish 4,653 paupers as compared with 2,096 of those of native birth and parentage.

It goes without saying that the cost of supporting these foreign dependents and delinquents and their children in public institutions is enormous. Probably twenty millions annually is a safe figure, and this does not take account of the enormous amount expended in private charity, for the machinery of police, law courts, hospitals, and other similar institutions. If time sufficed many more illustrations could be given, although the statistics on this subject are very imperfect, and the greatest burden upon the community is undoubtedly the lower standard of living and of morals, which appears only indirectly and after a time in statistical form.

Another serious danger resulting from recent emigration is that of congestion in certain States, and within those States in the large cities. Races which come to us to-day settle far more in the cities than those which came 50 years ago. This is largely a matter of race instinct, of enterprise and push in the emigrant, and in the amount of money which he brings with him. These facts are so well known that I need not go into them here. I do not believe myself that any plan for artificial distribution is workable. If we are practically to repeal the Contract Labor Law and establish a Labor Bureau at Ellis Island, something must be done in the way of distribution. This, however, will take a long time, and is an expedient of unknown value. The point, however, I wish to make here is that made by President Roosevelt, that, however important it may be to distribute desirable emigrants, that does not affect in the least the need for excluding all the undesirable. And I wish to make a further point, that unless the laws are strengthened so as to secure the absolute exclusion of the unfit, distribution from the Atlantic seaport will simply create a vacuum into which still larger numbers of all sorts of emigrants will be poured by the steamship companies. The mere establishment of a Labor Bureau at Ellis Island would, in my judgment, tend to increase the present emigration enormously, and would cause thousands to emigrate who are now deterred by not having any definite prospect of work.

The last danger which I will mention and perhaps the most important is that which affects our country, not by those whom it introduces but by those whom it excludes. It is well known that since the quality of our emigration has been deteriorating the better class of emigrants no longer come to this country but go elsewhere. They are unwilling to compete with the type of emigrants now coming. We are thus taking the worse and losing the better. The still more important effect, however, is the effect of increasing the undesirables in excluding the children of those who are already here by causing them never to be born. It is stated by good authorities that if there had been no emigration in the United States since 1820, it is by no means impossible that the population of the United States at the present time would not be exactly as large as it is now. Such, at least, was the opinion of General Walker and of the experts of the Industrial Commission. That the native birth rate is falling very rapidly has attracted wide attention. It is said that this is due to luxury and the desire of persons to better their social position. This is doubtless true. But one of the principal causes of the desire to better one's social condition is to escape from contact with those more unintelligent and socially inferior, which can only be done by acquiring education and capital sufficient to enter occupations into which the disturbing elements of population cannot enter. Without going into details and proofs, I am firmly convinced that the emigration of heterogeneous elements into our communities is the principal cause of the falling of the birth rate.

The existence of undesirable and dangerous elements in the present immigration is recognized by all competent students of the question, and especially by immigration officials of the widest experience.

Hon. William Williams, formerly Commissioner of Immigration at the port of New York, says in his Report for 1903:

"But these laws do not reach a large body of immigrants who, while not of this class, are yet generally undesirable, because unintelligent, of low vitality, of poor physique, able to perform only

the cheapest kind of manual labor, desirous of locating almost exclusively in the cities, by their competition tending to reduce the standard of living of the American wageworker, and unsifted mentally or morally for good citizenship. It would be quite impossible to accurately state what proportion of last year's immigration should be classed as 'undesirable.' I believe that at least 200,000 (and probably more) aliens came here who, although they may be able to earn a living, yet are not wanted, will be of no benefit to the country, and will, on the contrary, be a detriment, because their presence will tend to lower our standards; and if these 200,000 persons could have been induced to stay at home, nobody, not even those clamoring for more labor, would have missed them. Their coming has been of benefit chiefly, if not only, to the transportation companies which brought them here. . . .

"Aliens have no inherent right whatever to come here, and we may and should take means, however radical or drastic, to keep out all below a certain physical and economic standard of fitness and all whose presence will tend to lower our standards of living and civilization. The only apparent alternative is to allow transportation companies, largely foreign (whether by their own agents or by men to whom a commission is paid for each immigrant secured is not important), to cause eastern and southern Europe to be scoured for aliens, not whose presence here will benefit the United States, not who belong to a stock which will add to the elements on which the country in the past has grown great, not who will bring a certain amount of wealth to their new homes, but who merely happen to have enough money to purchase tickets from Europe to some place in the United States and can bring themselves within the easy requirements of the existing statutes. A too rapid filling up of any country with foreign elements is sure to be at the expense of national character when such elements belong to the poorest classes in their own respective homes."

Similarly Commissioner-General Sargent, in his Report for 1903, says:

"Enough, however, has been learned to convince the Bureau that the inadmissible classes of aliens should be somewhat enlarged. Thus, no diseased or physically incapable person should be admitted to the United States. The number coming is large enough to justify a rigid censorship, so as to exclude all those whose presence would be, either at the time of arrival or soon thereafter, a burden upon some community. With the same purpose in view an age limit might be presented—say, sixty years—and every alien applicant for admission who had passed that age should be refused a landing unless possessing a son or daughter in this country amply able to provide for such alien.

"It seems hardly necessary to enlarge upon the importance from this point of refusing admission to aliens suffering from disease, whether of a communicable nature or not. To meet with the physical conditions in a new and strange country, to avoid the risk of pauperism therein, diseased aliens should at least exhibit so much prudence as to wait recovery in their own homes."

The same eminent authority in his Report for 1904, after mentioning that 284 fines of \$100 each had been imposed upon steamship lines for bringing diseased immigrants, says:

"It is useless, if not puerile, to trust that the transportation lines representing enormous investments of capital operated for the express purpose will not resort to every known means to secure passengers, or that persons acting as their agents in foreign countries will not do likewise to secure commissions even if such acts involve violation of the laws of the United States."

Commissioner Williams, in his Report for 1904, says:

"This rapid filling up of the country with foreign elements representing often the poorest classes in their own homes and differing in blood and customs from those constituting the backbone of the United States is clearly at the expense of national character. It is sheer folly for a country with a population of 80,000,000 to increase deliberately the difficulty of solving its already great social and economic problems and to add to the burdens of its educational and charitable institutions by continuing to admit elements of the character described. Aliens have no inherent right to come here, and only those should be allowed to do so whose presence will be of real benefit to the country."

If it be proved that there are emigration evils what are the remedies?

First, Increase the present head-tax by \$10 or \$15, so that the United States shall no longer be the cheapest place for a person to come to, but shall be placed upon a footing in this respect with South America, Australia, and South Africa. This will remove the inducement for the lowest grades of aliens to come here rather than elsewhere. The adoption of such a head-tax would make the steerage rate no higher than it was 50 years ago when we were getting large numbers of desirable emigrants.

Second, Let us absolutely exclude persons of poor physique. There is no question that great advantages may result from this interbreeding here of various races, but if we were to make the experiment of interbreeding in any other department of life, in raising horses or producing new fruits and grains, we would take the best samples of each stock for producing purposes. At present we are watering our lifeblood by the introduction of large numbers of feeble, anæmic, tuberculous and degenerate individuals. I suggest the exclusion of "persons mentally or physically weak, defective or deteriorate so that their ability to earn a living in their particular occupation or employment is thereby affected." But to prevent the separation of families I might except from this rule wives, minor children, or parents of any one not a citizen but entitled to become a citizen within five years.

Third, While an increased head-tax and the exclusion of persons of poor physique will, in my judgment, accomplish a good deal of what we desire I believe that we should also exclude illiterates, that is to say, those who cannot read in their own language. While this would not necessarily result

in any cutting down of the numbers I believe it would tend to better the quality. Particular emigrants may be desirable although they cannot read, but the statistics show that those who are ignorant of a language are in fact and on the whole those who are ignorant of a trade, tend to congregate in the cities, have criminal tendencies, do not assimilate, and who form no permanent interests in this country.

In the harbor of our principal port we have set up the statue of Liberty enlightening the world, and you will notice that while in one hand she carries the torch of freedom, in her other hand is a book, and in a land where the chief power is guided by the ballot, it is not too much to require that those who come to throw in their lot with us and to enjoy the civilization which we have created shall be able to read the book of our laws by the light of Liberty's torch.

In conclusion I go back to what I said at the beginning. We have a duty to humanity to make our democracy a success, and democracy depends upon the intelligent co-operation of free and enlightened citizens in a homogeneous community. The best service that America can render to humanity is to preserve and perfect the institutions and ideals of its founders. The late Bishop Phillips Brooks, whose great heart yearned for the redemption of all mankind, summed up the sanction of emigration resolution in these words:

"If the world in the great march of centuries is going to be richer for the development of a certain national character, built up by a larger type of manhood here, then for the world's sake, for the sake of every nation that would pour in upon us that which would deteriorate that development, we have a right to stand guard over it. We have a right to stand guard over the conditions of that experiment, letting nothing interfere with it, drawing into it the richness which is to come by the entrance of many men from many nations and they in sympathy with our institutions and laws."

A very comprehensive consideration of the subject appeared in *Charities* for July, 1905. The article was entitled "How Shall We Select Our Immigrants?" the author being Mr. Robert De C. Ward, of Cambridge, Massachusetts.

We are now witnessing an annual immigration of about a million people, taken largely, as formerly was not the case, from countries that are strangers to the institutions and traditions on which our republic was founded. When present methods of transportation are further developed, we may see the annual arrival of two or three times that number, largely derived from countries still more remote and alien to our methods of government. In the face of such facts it is only those who are optimistic beyond the bounds of reason, or the hopelessly incautious, or those selfishly interested, who do not say to themselves that the stream must be further checked and regulated.

We cannot justly charge with prejudice against the alien those who wish a more careful selection of the fathers and mothers of future American children. We cannot count as un-American those who, with the late Gen. Francis A. Walker, believe that this stream of "pipe-line immigration," will, if left to itself, flow on "as long as any difference of economic level exists between our own population and that of the most degraded communities abroad." We cannot justly call those narrow or inhuman who see the danger of having our future standard of citizenship determined by the greed of a few transportation companies.

We still welcome, as we have always welcomed, those immigrants who, however humble, add to the sum of good citizenship of our country, but we have the undoubted right to restrict, regulate, or prohibit such alien immigration as proves a menace to the standard of living of our wage-earners and a danger to our democratic form of government.

In trying to effect a solution of this problem, it is obvious that we must bring about united action, in the face of a common danger, on the part of those who believe that the time has come for something to be done. As a step in this direction the writer has given below a brief explanation of a number of measures that have most strongly recommended themselves to those who have within the last few years given study and labor to the subject of practical legislative remedies and to their application.

Means should be taken to assist in the more complete enforcement of our present laws. Most of these laws are excellent so far as they go, and so far as they can be enforced by officials, hitherto largely unsupported by the public in the face of interested and often unscrupulous opposition. Such laws as we have are the slow growth of years, the result of careful study by many committees and commissions, and are the grudging concessions forced from an ever-wakeful opposition. Let us not condemn the whole system because of the stories which frequently appear in our newspapers concerning some individual alien upon whom these laws seem to bear harshly. Steamship companies, the immigrants themselves, and sometimes even American politicians, are interested in circumventing these laws in every possible way, and in rendering them unpopular. Our only safeguard against endless fraud, dishonesty, deceit and political pull is popular support of those who are trying to administer the laws. No body of federal officials deserves as hearty support as do the men of the United States immigration service. Nor is there any body whose work should be watched with more jealous care.

Our immigration laws should be amended and there should be further additions to the excluded classes. Many suggestions have been made concerning further restriction. Some, such as consular

inspection abroad, or the admission of aliens on a five-year probationary period, would be clumsy, expensive, and largely ineffective. Other measures, such as a large head-tax of \$50 or \$100, are open to criticism as carrying exclusion too far. Others, such as a wholesale distribution of aliens over our country districts, are palliatives rather than cures, and cannot of themselves solve the immigration problem. No one can doubt that a well-directed and intelligent distribution of aliens of strong physique over farming districts where they will find work which they are fitted to perform, and where they are wanted, should be encouraged. But it must be remembered that the immigration which we most need to check is made up of people who are not fitted for an agricultural life; that our agricultural communities do not desire a wholesale and indiscriminate invasion of Slav, Latin, Hebrew and Asiatic immigrants but want something else; that the effect upon the sections in which the distribution takes place is not always for the best, and that the immigration which we are now getting is crowding out the class of immigrants who used to be in the majority and who went readily into the country. In the corn belt of the West, as has recently been shown, the newer immigrants, because of their lower standards of living, have an advantage over the native-born farmers. Again, the immigration of Italians and other alien laborers into the South will doubtless cause a migration of the Negroes to the cities — a result which those familiar with the conditions of Negroes now congested in cities cannot fail to view with apprehension. Further, to attempt to relieve our slums by dispersing their inhabitants, without at the same time further restricting the numbers of newer aliens who will pour in, is like trying to keep a boat bailed out without stopping the leak.

No distribution of immigrants should be thought of if the States to which they are to be sent do not welcome them. A canvass of the different States, made within six months, brought forth from the officials to whom the inquiries were sent a vigorous protest against the shipment of southern and eastern Europeans from the city slums into their States. In the South to-day there is need of pickers in the cotton fields in some sections and of mine laborers in others. The demand for "cheap" labor without regard to the effects which the wholesale importation of "cheap" laborers will have upon the community comes apparently from a comparatively limited number of capitalists, and from certain southern railroads. The majority of the thinking people of the South, who know something about the evils which have come in the train of the newer alien immigration in the North, cannot look with favor upon the wholesale importation of cheap and ignorant alien labor. Such an importation might, it is true, give a temporary relief, but it would bring in its wake, in the future, many vast and complex problems which the South has not yet had to face. It would soon add another race problem. Several of the southern States have emphatically stated what nationalities of immigrants they want, and their preferences are for people from the northern United States and for northern Europeans. There is no doubt that they can secure such immigrants if they insist on having these and no others. A leading newspaper of the South has recently said that no such immigrants as have crowded the East Side of New York and the factories of New England are wanted in the South. The general demand is for the intelligent "settler who has means of purchase," not for the newly-arrived, ignorant and penniless immigrant who "would require the fostering care of government or of wealthy private societies." The land companies and large private owners of land are in search of purchasers who have resided in the United States for some years and are familiar with American customs, or else of immigrants with some money, coming mainly from northern Europe.

1. *The head-tax should be raised.* A head-tax of fifty cents on each immigrant was imposed by act of Congress in 1882. It was later raised to one dollar, and the act of March 3, 1903, increased it to two dollars. This money is paid by the steamship companies and is simply added to the price of the passage ticket. The immigrant himself knows nothing of the payment. The head-tax is paid into the United States treasury, forming what is known as the "immigrant fund," and is spent in maintaining the immigrant service. This head-tax should be increased to twenty-five dollars. The chief reason for advocating such an increase is that we have no other means of keeping the steerage passage rate to the United States at a figure which brings it somewhere near the rate to South America and other countries to which immigrants are likely to go. When a steamship war is on, the steerage rates may drop to ten dollars, or even less, as they did in the summer of 1904, and as they seem likely to do again. Such a reduction immediately brings a large influx of desperately poor and generally undesirable aliens, as was the case last year. An increased head-tax means a larger "immigrant fund," and that means more effective administration of existing laws and better care of the immigrants. It is objected to an increased head-tax that the honesty and character of an immigrant do not depend upon his ability to pay a certain sum of money, and that undesirable persons, criminals for example, might easily pay the tax. In answer to this objection it need only be pointed out that the higher head-tax is not to be substituted for the other restrictive clauses of existing law; it is to be added to them. Criminals are already excluded by law. They would be excluded — if detected — even if they could pay the extra passage money necessitated by a larger head-tax. An increased head-tax is intended as a means — the only means within our reach — of keeping the steerage passage above the level of pauper rates, and is one of the few practicable methods of reducing the flow of undesirable immigration to a point where it can be properly assimilated. The United States should not be chosen by an immigrant, as it now often is, because it is the cheapest country to go to. It should be selected because it is the best, and by those who want the best. A head-tax of twenty-five dollars was not desirable years ago. It becomes more and more necessary as the increasing facilities of land and

water transportation make it easier and cheaper to come here. The tax would not act as a permanent and insuperable barrier to desirable aliens, for any hard-working and ambitious man or woman who wanted to come here could earn the extra money. It would doubtless deter many of the shiftless and incompetent, and it would prevent such shipments of paupers and criminals as are now known to have been made with the connivance, if not at the expense, of the authorities abroad.

2. "*Assisted*" immigration should be further restricted. For many years congressional committees have paid attention to what is known as "*assisted*" immigration, that is, the prepayment of an alien's passage by a relative, or friend, or employer, on this side of the water, or by charitable societies, or local government authorities on the other side. There has always been much evil in "*assisted*" immigration, for it has been shown that undesirable immigrants have been sent here in order that they might be gotten off the hands of the local authorities in their own homes. These persons drift readily into our prisons and almshouses. Charitable societies still send aliens to us from Europe. Aliens also come here on tickets which are prepaid by distant relatives and friends in the United States, who often fail to support or to care for the newcomers after they have arrived. Employers, likewise, directly or indirectly, encourage the prepayment of passage in order that they may secure cheaper labor. There is no objection to "*assisted*" immigration when a husband sends for a wife, a brother for a sister, or a son for a parent. There is little danger that immigrants "*assisted*" to come in this way will become burdens upon the community. But the more distant the relationship, the less claim the new arrival has upon the person already here, and the less desirable, on the whole, is the "*assisted*" alien. Congress some years ago very properly recognized the danger in "*assisted*" immigration when it debarred from landing "any person whose ticket or passage is paid for with the money of another, or who is assisted by others to come." But in order to make it possible for the members of a family to send for one another, the following words were added: "But this section shall not be held to prevent persons living in the United States from sending for a relative or friend who is not of the . . . excluded classes." The motive of Congress was excellent, but the phrasing of the law is too loose to meet present conditions. At present about fifty per cent of our total immigration is "*assisted*," and, for an "*assisted*" immigrant, any one is a "friend," and any one up to a fifth or sixth cousin several times removed is a "relative." The time has come, with our present enormous immigration, to restrict to the immediate family the privilege of "*assisting*" other aliens. As a rule it is safe to say that the less desirable immigrants are those who cannot pay their own passage. We should certainly allow fathers and mothers, and brothers and sisters, and husbands and wives and children to prepay each other's passage. Beyond that, "*assisted*" immigration should be stopped. Therefore the clause concerning "*assisted*" immigration should be followed by some such words as these: "But this section shall not be held to prevent *citizens* of the United States from sending for their fathers or mothers, wives, sisters or brothers, or minor children who are not of the excluded classes." A bill introduced by Senator Lodge into the Fifty-eighth Congress (S. 1376) embodied an amendment along these same lines. In his last annual report as commissioner of immigration at the port of New York, Hon. William Williams said on this matter: "I believe that assisted immigration should be prohibited, subject to reasonable exceptions in cases of very close and otherwise eligible relatives, such as fathers, mothers, children, brothers and sisters of responsible aliens who have already resided here a sufficient length of time." There would be no permanent hardship in such a provision, because any alien, otherwise admissible, could come as soon as he had been able to pay his own passage money.

3. *We should debar immigrants of poor physique.* The immigration question is racial, rather than economic. One of the most potent factors in decreasing the American birth-rate has been the immigration of aliens of lower standards of living. American fathers and mothers, as the late Gen. Francis A. Walker pointed out, and as leading authorities have since reiterated, naturally shrink from exposing their sons and daughters to competition with those who are contented with lower wages and lower standards of living, and therefore these sons and daughters are never born. The stronger the competition, the greater the effort to maintain and raise the standard of living and the social position, and the greater the effort, the greater is the voluntary check on population. Competition is much more serious when it results from the immigration of races which are able, and content, to live under wholly inferior conditions. It is the desire to live above the level of recent immigrants which operates to keep Americans from marrying, or from having large families. On the other hand, while the native American, or northern European, stock is declining in many parts of the country, the newer elements are increasing very rapidly, not by immigration alone, but by their own natural high birth-rate. The question is, therefore, one of race substitution. It is, as Robert Hunter has well said, fundamentally a question of what kind of babies shall be born. It is true that the fittest of those who are born survive, but these survivors may not be the fittest for any purpose except the continuation of life and reproduction. The value of selection in breeding animals, and in producing fruits and grains, is universally recognized. There is also much talk of preventing the marriage of persons who are unfit for other purposes than mere survival. Yet we have failed to see that we may, through our power to regulate immigration, exercise an artificial selection in the choice of the fathers and mothers of future American children. We have failed to see that American children have as much right to be born as aliens have to land. The northern European stock, which makes up the bulk of our present population, is fated, for better or for worse, to be replaced or at least to be radically changed by newer

"foreign" blood. It may be that the American race of the future is to be a far better race in every respect than the old one. But we should remember that, as it has been put by a recent writer, "in forming a race of unknown value, there is being sacrificed a race of acknowledged superiority in originality and enterprise." It is of the utmost importance that we should keep the new blood pure, and that we should keep up the American race standard.

One of the essential points in regard to our recent immigration is that much of it is not voluntary in the true meaning of that word. It is an artificial selection by the steamship companies of many of the worst elements of European and Asiatic populations. The social responsibility which rests upon this country in this matter is overwhelming. We may decide upon what merits, physical, intellectual, or moral, the fathers and mothers of American children shall be selected. But we have left the choice almost altogether to the selfish interests which do not care whether we want the immigrants they bring, or whether the immigrants will be the better for coming. Steamship agents and brokers all over Europe and eastern Asia are to-day deciding for us the character of the American race of the future.

It is, therefore, high time that aliens of poor physique should be debarred from our shores. When we raise horses, or cattle, or dogs, or sheep, we select good, strong, healthy stock. If we have any concern for the physical development of our race, we should certainly be no less careful in the selection of our human stock. With the change in the racial character of our immigration in recent years there has come a marked deterioration in the general physique of the immigrants. At the present time our medical inspectors record thousands of aliens as being of such poor physique that their ability to earn a living is thereby interfered with, yet most of these are admitted because there is no specific clause in our existing immigration law under which they can clearly and surely be excluded.* The physique of an immigrant is a matter of the very highest importance for the health and future of the race. It is the aliens of poor physique who usually shun the country, and crowd into city tenements, "where they become ready victims of diseases and establish in these crowded quarters dangerous foci for the dissemination of disease." "The real danger to the public health, and to the future of our stock, lies in that class of immigrants whose physique is much below American standards."

Our best insurance against race decadence is to be sought in the selection of good, strong, healthy stock. We want none but honest, industrious, healthy and fit immigrants, and we can get them if we exclude the others. We want them sound in body and sound in mind. We have by law debarred those of unsound mind. Our next step should be to debar those of poor physique. A reasonable, wise, and necessary addition to our immigration laws would be the exclusion of persons physically weak or defective so that they are wholly or partially disabled from manual labor, or so that their ability to earn a living in any trade or occupation upon which such persons are dependent is thereby affected, whether that trade or occupation involves hard physical effort or not. This section should not be held to exclude the wife, minor children, or parents of a person now living in or hereafter admitted to the United States if it be affirmatively and satisfactorily shown, on special inquiry, that such person is able to give his wife, minor children, or parents adequate support.

4. *The illiteracy test.* No plan for further selecting immigration has had more general support than the illiteracy test. This requires that adult immigrants, with exceptions in favor of wives, minor children, and parents, shall be able to read a few lines in their own language. This test has had the united support of the great majority of students of the immigration problem, not because illiteracy necessarily means that an immigrant will prove a bad citizen, or that ability to read makes a good one, but because the measure will be practical in cutting down the number of those aliens whose ignorance and lack of occupation and of resources make them material for our rapidly growing slums, and whose numbers make the problem of proper assimilation an impossible one. As Commissioner-General Sargent has said: "This requirement, whatever arguments or illustrations may be used to establish the contrary position, will furnish alien residents of a character less likely to become burdens on public or private charity. Otherwise it must follow that rudimentary education is a handicap in the struggle for existence."

An illiteracy test is in harmony with American ideas and citizenship. It is objected that such a test would not keep out anarchists and criminals, but as President Roosevelt has pointed out, it would "tend to decrease the sum of ignorance, so potent in producing the envy, suspicion, malignant passion, and hatred of order, out of which anarchistic sentiment inevitably springs." Moreover, this test, like the increased head-tax, is not to replace existing grounds for exclusion; it is an addition to them. A criminal would be debarred under the present law, even if he could pass the illiteracy test. No one has ever claimed that the ability to read is a test of moral character, but such a test would certainly lessen the burden upon our schools and upon our charitable institutions. Every nation

* A certificate of poor physique "implies that the alien concerned is afflicted with a body but ill adapted not only to the work necessary to earn his bread but is also but poorly able to withstand the onslaught of disease. It means that he is undersized, poorly developed, with feeble heart action, arteries below the standard size; that he is physically degenerate, and as such not only unlikely to become a desirable citizen, but also very likely to transmit his undesirable qualities to his offspring, should he, unfortunately for the country in which he is domiciled, have any. — [Official definition of poor physique.]

should care for its own illiterates, as it should care for its own insane and its own paupers. We have declared against the admission of the insane and the criminals and the paupers of other countries. It is time for us to stop shouldering the burden of European and Asiatic illiteracy. Our own national burden of white and negro illiteracy is heavy enough. We are daily adding to it by the admission of thousands of alien illiterates. Nothing that the United States can do for universal common school education would be so effective as the adoption of an illiteracy test for immigrants. Thus a recent writer who is well informed regarding the conditions of Italian immigration says: "An educational test for immigrants might be an effective means of applying a stimulus to popular education in Italy, and might really assist the government materially in its efforts to get children to the common schools." The United States Industrial Commission said: "If compulsory education is desirable as a preparation for American citizenship and as a protection to the citizens themselves, it is equally desirable for immigrants who are prospective citizens and for American children who are prospective citizens." Our immigration laws should have for a leading object the protection of American citizenship. It is absurdly inconsistent for us to spend vast sums of money in the education of American children, and then open our gates freely to thousands of aliens who have not been required to obtain similar education.

There is no danger that the exclusion of illiterates would cause a scarcity of labor in this country. If there is a demand for laborers, the supply will be forthcoming from Europe. If the steamship companies cannot bring illiterates, they will fill their steerage with aliens who can read. And with the stimulus thus put upon education, the illiteracy in many of the countries of Europe would soon show a notable decline. There is plenty of labor now in our cities which would be better off in the country, where there is great need of farm "help." But the city attracts, and the farmer waits for his help. So it would be under the illiteracy test.

It is urged that our native population, as well as the better class of immigrants, will not do the hard work needed to build our railroads and develop our mines, and hence we must continually import lower grades of aliens to do this work. The usual course of reasoning in this matter is fallacious. Americans abandoned the harder kinds of manual labor, not because they despised these occupations, but because they found that these occupations brought them into competition with aliens whose standards of living were much lower than their own. The same is now true of the Irish, who have largely been replaced by the Italians, and will later be true of the Italians, when other newer immigrants come in whose standards of living are so low that the Italians will not wish to associate with them. But meanwhile, if we continue to admit lower and lower grades of immigrants in this fashion, the general standards of living of the whole community must inevitably also be lowered. It is often said that the crowding out of native Americans and of the older nationalities of immigrants is all for the best; that they all go up into higher occupations. This is not so. While some doubtless do rise in the social scale as the result of being displaced, some are crowded out and move elsewhere, and many are crowded down, becoming paupers and swelling the army of American tramps.

It must also be remembered that "cheap" labor is not socially cheap. As Edward T. Devine has well said: "While it is true that cheap labor may be made profitable from the employer's point of view, it does not follow that those who are considering the interests of the community can look with favor upon it. . . . The effect of utilizing underpaid immigrant labor under conditions which, in order to afford a living at all, make excessive demands upon adult men and lead irresistibly to the employment of women and children, is directly to increase the number who sooner or later require relief."

To sum up: We need intelligent distribution from our congested districts of physically fit aliens over the country districts where these aliens are wanted and where they will be given work which they are physically and mentally qualified to perform. We need a public backing for our immigration officials in enforcing the laws we now have. We need new legislation to sift the immigrants whom we receive. We need a higher head-tax; a restriction of the privilege of "assisting" immigrants to come here; a physical test. And we need that limit to the present unwieldy numbers of immigrants which would be best furnished by an illiteracy test.

The Hon. Augustus P. Gardner of Massachusetts introduced the two following bills relating to immigration in the House of Representatives, Fifty-ninth Congress. These bills were referred to the Committee on Immigration and Naturalization.

A BILL TO PROMOTE THE BETTER DISTRIBUTION OF IMMIGRATION.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Secretary of Commerce and Labor be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed to establish at such immigration stations as he may think fit a bureau of information which shall furnish to immigrants such statements as may seem to him proper relative to wages, cost of living, and conditions and opportunities for employment in all parts of the United States.

A BILL TO REGULATE THE IMMIGRATION OF ALIENS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the duty levied, collected, and paid for each alien passenger arriving in the United States with the exception of citizens of the Dominion of Canada, Newfoundland, the Republic of Cuba, or of the Republic of Mexico, as provided in the Act of March third, nineteen hundred and three, as amended by the Act of March twenty-second, nineteen hundred and four, shall be forty dollars instead of two dollars in the case of all males over sixteen years of age: *Provided*, That for sons under eighteen years of age of citizens of the United States, and fathers and grandfathers over fifty years of age of citizens of the United States, but two dollars shall be levied, collected, and paid.

Sec. 2. That the provisions of section one of this Act shall not apply to alien passengers arriving in the Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, and the Hawaiian Islands: *Provided*, That if any such alien passengers, not having become citizens of the United States, shall later arrive in any port of the United States not situated on one of the islands above mentioned, the provisions of section one of this Act shall be applicable.

Sec. 3. That nothing in this Act shall be held to affect the provisions of section one of the Act of March third, nineteen hundred and three, relating to aliens in transit through the United States, and relating to aliens who have once been admitted into the United States and have paid the head-tax, who later shall go in transit from one part of the United States to another through foreign contiguous territory.

The following resolutions were unanimously indorsed last December by the American Federation of Labor and the Japanese and Korean Exclusion League of California, and also by many fraternal and civic organizations representing the Pacific Coast and the Eastern States, including probably more than 1,000,000 wage earners.

Whereas, the menace of Chinese labor, greatly allayed by the passage and enforcement of the Chinese exclusion act, has been succeeded by an evil similar in general character, but much more threatening in its possibilities, to wit:

The immigration to the United States and its insular territory of large and increasing numbers of Japanese and Korean laborers; and

Whereas, American public sentiment against the immigration of Chinese labor, as expressed and crystallized in the enactment of the Chinese exclusion act, finds still stronger justification in demanding prompt and adequate measures of protection against the immigration of Japanese and Korean labor, on the grounds (1) that the wage and living standard of such labor are dangerous to and must, if granted recognition in the United States, prove destructive of American standards in these essential respects; (2) that a racial incompatibility, as between the peoples of the Orient and the United States, presents a problem of race preservation which it is our imperative duty to solve in our own favor, and which can only be thus solved by a policy of exclusion; and

Whereas, the systematic colonization of these Oriental races to our insular territory in the Pacific and the threatened and partly accomplished extension of that system to the Pacific Coast and other Western localities of the United States constitutes a standing danger, not only to the domestic peace, but to the continuance of friendly relations between the nations concerned; therefore be it

Resolved, That the terms of the Chinese exclusion act should be enlarged and extended so as to permanently exclude from the United States and its insular territory all classes of Japanese and Koreans other than those exempted by the present terms of that act; further

Resolved, That these resolutions be submitted through the proper avenues to the Congress of the United States with a request for favorable consideration and action by that body.

President Samuel Gompers, of the American Federation of Labor, was a delegate to the Immigration Conference held in New York. In the *American Federationist* for February, 1906, that gentleman refers to the Conference in an article headed "Immigration Generally and Chinese Incidentally Discussed."

I listened with a great deal of interest to the addresses delivered in this conference, and desire to say that I take second position to no man in the recognition of fundamental principles and fundamental rights of man. The question with which this conference has to deal is not necessarily an academic one. It is concrete. It is a practical question.

Ask me whether I believe that every man should have the free and unrestricted right to go where he pleases, and I answer in the abstract, "yes." In the concrete there are some other considerations. I respectfully dissent from the statement that the immigration question is not a vital one. It may not be vital to those who are assured in this world's goods, but to the men who are dependent upon their day's labor to live, to them it is not an academic proposition, but a vital question.

The Chinaman is a man. I have not anything against the Chinaman. I have met some Chinamen of whom I think very much. But there is a whole heap of difference between the individual Chinaman we meet here and there, who has character and ambition and ideals, and whose aspirations are somewhat in unison with the ideals and the aspirations of the American citizen, and the average Chinaman who has come to the United States. I do not want to exclude the Chinaman from the United States because he is a Chinaman. I am opposed to the Chinaman coming to the United States because his ideals, his civilization, are absolutely in antagonism to the ideals and civilization of America. Never in the history of the world have Chinese gone to any country in any considerable numbers without one of two things occurring — first, that the Chinaman has dominated, or he has been driven out by force. The Chinaman is a cheap man.

Is it not strange that there are quite a number of people in our country who have in their entire industrial history favored a system of protection against products from foreign countries and want absolute free trade in labor? I do not want you to interpret my remarks as emanating from an advocate of free trade, but it does seem an inconsistency to impose a tax, a duty upon the product of the European and Asiatic workmen if this product is brought to the ports of our country, and then to open up the same ports so that the workmen themselves can come here by the millions.

One of the greatest difficulties, one of the greatest evils in connection with our present haphazard, chaotic method, or lack of method, if I may use that term, in immigration is that the immigrants to a very large degree are at certain stated periods concentrated at a given point. Whole sections of the world are scoured in order to gather up a large number of workmen of a given trade or calling, who are brought to the United States and placed at a given point in a certain industry for its depressing effect upon the men employed in that line of work. This does not come under the operation of our very defective provision of the alien contract labor law.

Speaking of normal conditions, we agree that it is perfectly natural for men to have free locomotion and to go where they please; that is true, and it is proper. But may I call your attention to this fact, also: that the natural condition of man has not been to meet in concert halls of a beautiful structure such as this in which we meet. The natural condition of man was to be on mother earth and to bear the vicissitudes, the inclemencies of weather, and storm and stress. But it was the ingenuity of man and his growing intelligence that first built a dugout and provided food for seasons during which things did not grow, that he might be able to withstand the elements and sustain life. Self-protection, as I took occasion to say yesterday, is the universally recognized law; self-protection is the first law of nature, and it is the purpose, it is the policy, it is the necessity of the American workingman to protect himself from the influences that would still further press him down. We want the absolute right of opportunity for the development of all that is good in us. We want the right and the opportunity to be American citizens, with all that the term implies, we having no feeling of ill will — nothing but the kindest spirit and feeling toward our fellow-men, wherever they may be. We believe, however, that our first duty is to protect our own people and help in the fuller and the greater development of the possibilities of our people.

Previous to the Immigration Conference the following article appeared in the *American Federationist* for October, 1905, written by Lydia Kingsmill Commander, entitled "Evil Effects of Immigration:"

If we had an Immigrant's Day, as we have a Labor Day, and if a parade containing all the unnaturalized immigrants, those who have landed within the last five years, should march side by side with all the organized workers in the country, the immigrants would out-number the unionists by fully a million.

Think of what that means! After 75 years of agitation and education, unionism has succeeded in bringing into orderly organization two and a half millions of American workers. It has battled for a rational workday and a fair wage. It has struggled for a decent standard of living and a self-respecting, independent manhood.

But in five years, only five years, three and a half millions of unorganized, untrained, un-American toilers have been poured into the country to compete with our workers, to labor long hours for small wages, to degrade our standard of living, and to combat, in every possible way, the great work being done by the unions.

Already the coke industry has entirely passed into the hands of the Huns and Slavs. The iron and steel trade has been flooded by men of the same nationalities. The Lake Superior ore mines are being captured by the Finns. In the coal and the clothing trades the unions have conquered only after long and strenuous struggles. Railroad construction is almost completely dominated by unorganized Italians.

The Bureau of Statistics of Labor for New York State for 1898 (I have no later report at hand) records that one-half of the unions have been injured by immigrant competition. Of 265 unions, 120, with 34,304 members, suffered reduction of wages; 97 unions, with a membership of 22,318, had fewer working-days in the year.

The defenders of this reckless immigration always advance the argument that we all come of European stock if we only trace our families back far enough. But there is a marked difference between the immigration of the past and of the present.

Those who came to America, even a generation ago, were the energetic, capable, and fearless of other lands — those who were prosperous enough to pay their passage money and daring enough to risk a long sea voyage and the unfamiliar conditions of a new country.

Now the ships' companies have so systematized the immigrant traffic that it is almost easier for the shiftless and incapable to come to America than to stay at home. Hence the failures, the "beaten men of beaten races," the incompetents, and often even the criminals and idiots of foreign lands are poured in a ceaseless and swelling tide upon our too hospitable shores.

Once landed these assisted immigrants are to the employer a weapon, to the worker a menace. They become the problem and the care of organized labor.

Unionism is a great nation-wide factory, taking in the raw material of humanity and making of it intelligent, self-reliant men, fit for citizenship in a self-governing country. But the best factory in the world will fail if continually supplied with poor raw material. Doubly will it fail if overstocked, overtaxed, overwhelmed with a supply increasingly beyond its utmost working capacity.

Such is the condition being forced upon organized labor by the tremendous and artificially stimulated immigration of the present. Great, then, is the need of strengthening the unions to cope with this vast army of labor invaders; and imperative has it become to put up higher barriers to check its menacing advance.

The subject of "Foreign Immigration" was considered in the January number of the *American Inventor*:

The question of foreign immigration to the United States has been of great moment to the industrial enterprises of the country during the past year, and from many sources comes a loud cause of complaint against the enormous and indiscriminate admission of foreign laborers who are detrimental to our home industries and injurious to the welfare of our native citizens.

In the annual report of the Bureau of Immigration, Commissioner-General Sargent says that the total alien arrivals reported for the year, 1,026,499, represent an increase over the preceding year of 213,629. The number of arrivals at the ports of Boston and New York has greatly increased, while a decrease is shown at Pacific ports, though this is accounted for in a great measure by the Russian-Japanese War.

Statistics of immigration for a number of years past conclusively prove the need for a plan whereby the vast number of aliens coming to this country may be distributed throughout the various States by some systematic arrangement, and thus prevent the congestion of foreign labor that exists at the present time in several localities.

The States of New York, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and California hold permanently about 75 per cent of the incomers. To effect a more even distribution, a limit should be placed on every port of entry as regards the number of immigrants to be admitted during any one year, which would have the effect of compelling all persons in excess of the stipulated number to enter the country at a port which had not completed its quota. By this system the distribution would be more nearly equalized among the several States, and as the immigrants would find employment in the vicinity of their port of entry, the building up of the country would be benefited more generally than under the present régime.

The South is sorely in need of foreign labor, and some such plan as suggested above would not only benefit this particular section to a large degree, but would also be of decided advantage to the immigrants themselves in presenting opportunities that are not available in the large cities.

As a means for reducing the number of objectionable persons coming into the United States a bill was recently introduced in Congress which imposed a tax upon all arrivals. Such a law would be the means of raising a considerable revenue and also cause much fraud in unlawful entries, but whether it would result in excluding the really objectionable person is very doubtful.

From the *Congregationalist and Christian World* for May 13, 1905, we extract the following article relating to the proposed "British Restrictions of Immigration":

The British Parliament for a second time has debated the Aliens' Bill, a law calculated to make more stringent the rules governing the admission of European emigrants to British towns and cities. Opposition to the bill is found mainly among Radicals and old-fashioned Liberals, who dislike

exceedingly to have anything done which modifies that liberty of entrance to Great Britain which has been her glory in the past. Refugees of highest character, intelligence, and often of wealth have come to Great Britain in bygone days—Huguenots, Dutch, Jews, all flying from religious bigots. Persecuted folk on the Continent have looked upon Britain as the ancient people did on the cities of refuge. Settling down to industry and the rewards of life under free institutions, they have enriched not only themselves but the kingdom. Now, however, a new sort of settlers is pouring in, who physically are below normal standards, who compete with the native in an economic struggle in which the newcomer wins because of lower standards of living. Moreover, the immigrant too often is assisted in his flight to England by designing officials of Continental states and cities who are dumping their human refuse on English and American shores. Contemporaneous with and prompted by the same causes that have forced our recent drastic immigration legislation, the Aliens' Bill, with the Ministry back of it, is sure to pass.

The proposed law referred to in the preceding article became a law on the first of January, 1906. Twenty-four immigrants, mostly women, who arrived at Grimsby were rejected on the ground that they were without means. The law provides that all third-class aliens shall be subject to examination and any of them may be rejected on the following grounds: Inability to present means of support; conviction of crime in a foreign country; being afflicted with a disease likely to cause them to become public charges, or having had expulsion orders made against them in the countries from which they come.

The *Boston Herald* of February 13, 1906, referring to the new British law, said :

The report of Consul Mabin of Nottingham shows that the British government has put the new exclusion act in operation with a full force of inspectors to cull out undesirable immigrants who have heretofore entered England without question. As showing the direction from which the undesirable immigrants are expected, the consul points out that of the thirteen immigration ports eleven are on the east coast of the island. The causes for which an immigrant may be rejected as undesirable are similar to those in force in this country, and it is interesting to observe that immigrants intended for America who have through prepaid tickets will be admitted without examination only on the security given by the shipping company that they will not be permitted to remain in the United Kingdom, nor be returned to the United Kingdom if rejected by the country which is their final destination. As Consul Mahin points out, this ought to cull out many of the undesirable persons now heading for America, and the exclusion act will be regarded as a desirable piece of legislation, since it acts as a sort of preliminary sieve for persons who are ticketed for this country.

The Associated Charities of Toronto, in January of the present year, sent the following protest to the Mayor of the city, to the Minister of the Interior at Ottawa, and to the Minister of Agriculture for Ontario :

The Executive Committee of the Associated Charities of Toronto feel it their duty to call your attention to what appears to be a growing danger of excessive or undesirable immigration.

The secretary of the association already reports a considerable influx upon Toronto of immigrants who, during the season, have been employed upon the farms.

The Salvation Army is preparing for the transmission from England of 10,000 immigrants, who will, no doubt, be selected with care, but of whom, the rural population being reduced, a large proportion must apparently be taken from the cities.

Baron Rothschild is sending out 250 families, taken from the poor quarters of London. An invitation has been extended to Russian and Polish refugees to make Canada their home. The habits and callings of these people are almost entirely urban, so that there would be little room for them here. Some of them might be reduced to miserable subsistence. Canada gladly offers a home to suitable inmates, but by offering a home to a multitude of those who are unsuitable, she would do an injury to the immigrant, as well as to herself.

The statement was signed by Goldwin Smith, the Rev. H. Francis Perry, D.D., Frank Walsh, R. F. Massie, J. M. Johnston, M.D., the

Rev. Robert Hall, E. J. Hearn, Edward A. Welch, the Rev. L. Minehan, and D. Miller.

In the *Boston Transcript* for December 30, 1905, Mr. E. W. Thompson presented a lengthy consideration of the question "Will Canada Bar Aliens?" The article is too long for reproduction here, but a division of it entitled "The Foreign Element in the West" will be of interest to Americans, as it refers to the growing emigration from the United States to Canada.

Until the impending special census of the new provinces shall have been taken and published there is no estimating their constituent human elements except from the census of 1901 and the "tab" that the immigration department has kept on newcomers. In 1901 the total population of the N. W. Territories, from which Alberta and Saskatchewan have been carved, was 158,940 souls. The born Canadians were 91,535, all included in the born British, 109,147. The foreign born numbered 48,981, including 13,877 Americans. Between June, 1901, and July, 1904, according to the immigration statistics, Canada had received 109,425 people from Great Britain and Ireland, 95,618 from the European continent and Iceland, and 121,032 from the United States, of whom 33,964 were American citizens and 18,558 repatriated Canadians. For 1904-5 the immigration from Great Britain and Ireland was 65,359, from Continental Europe 37,345, from the United States 43,562, including 15,498 American citizens and 6,388 repatriated Canadians. Between June, 1901, and July, 1905, the migration of Eastern Canadians to the West amounted to 67,966 souls. The two new provinces are believed to contain now about 400,000 people, though estimated to number 500,000 last spring for the purpose of calculating what subsidy they should each receive from the Dominion treasury, which was a generous forestalling of their probable population at the coming local census. Probably their constituent human elements would be approximated if it were estimated that three-fourths of all the immigrant population since 1901 has gone to them, and the same proportion of the eastern Canadians migrating westward. At that rate there would be about 18 native Canadians to 19 people from Great Britain and Ireland, to 20 from continental Europe, to 6 former American citizens. Reckoning the Canadians, British, and Americans as essentially one people, then 42 of them have to assimilate 20 continental Europeans. The foreign element is relatively much larger than the American people have ever had to deal with at one time. Fortunately it includes a large proportion of Scandinavians and Germans, who quickly assimilate themselves to the environment. Still, the real Canadians have to take the principal part in showing all the others how to work the complicated peculiar Canadian system of Federal, provincial, municipal and school government. Yet there are, on the previous rough estimate, only 180 Canadians to 450 of the other kinds in Alberta and Saskatchewan. If the West is to be kept in that solidarity with the East, which facilitates harmonious political union, then it might be well for Ottawa to think about encouraging migration westward.

The American Hebrew, published in New York City, of date January 26, 1906, presents the following article from the London *Economist*, showing the position of Australian labor on immigration :

The subject of immigration is being widely discussed from various points of view. Many thoughtful people realize that the growth of the population of Australia is too slow, and that a steady influx of immigrants is required to aid in the development of the country. Some of them doubt whether it will continue to be possible to uphold the doctrine of a "white" Australia without the introduction of more whites. Others impressed by the high position taken by Japan, and the possibility that Eastern countries generally may become antagonistic to Australia, desire that the population should be strengthened for purposes of defence. But the labor party and its immediate allies are on the whole unfriendly toward the adoption of any large scheme of immigration. The attitude of labor is indicated by the following resolution, anent General Booth's proposal to send out 5,000 families to Australia, adopted unanimously by the Melbourne Trades Hall Council: "That this council enters its emphatic protest against General Booth's immigration scheme, or any for immigration till the lands of Australia are unlocked by Australians by the placing of a compulsory land purchase act on the statute book." Either one of two things is meant by the expression "a compulsory land purchase act." One is compulsory purchase at fair valuations, the other is compulsory purchase at whatever price the government may choose to fix. The resolution fairly represents the opinion of those in whose name it has been adopted. The states of New South Wales, Queensland and Western Australia, having a great deal of unalienated land, are, however, favorably disposed to immigration, and the offer made by the Premier of New South Wales of fairly good country in the northwestern portion of the

State is to be appreciated. Unless the commonwealth government proves to be obstructive, room can be easily found for General Booth's 5,000 emigrants. A State like Victoria, where nearly all the fertile land has passed out of the possession of the crown, is unable to offer inducement to immigration. But there are plenty of properties more or less improved always offering to persons possessed of some capital. Beyond the coastal districts immigration on any considerable scale is out of the question, the interior being virtually a desert: There is no hinterland of agricultural value.

We quote from *Dun's Review* for September 23, 1905, an article entitled "Immigration and Its Lessons." It presents statistics which will be of particular value when taken in connection with the varying views previously given in this article. These statistics have not been verified by this Department.

Immigration to the United States has at last passed the full-million-a-year mark, the total for the fiscal year ended June 30 being 1,027,421, against 812,870 in 1903-04, 857,046 in 1902-03, and 648,743 in 1901-02; thus there has been a nearly steady increase in the last four years, and the total for the four is 3,346,080. Such movements of population are always to countries of larger liberty and wider promise; to reach a land of promise has been the desire of the race since the day of Adam.

In considering the character of recent immigration, the countries from which it comes may first be noted, and the following shows this for the fiscal years ending June 30:

DIVISIONS.	1905	1904	1903	1902	1901	1900
United Kingdom,	137,157	87,590	68,947	46,036	45,446	48,327
German Empire,	40,576	46,380	40,086	28,304	21,651	18,507
Austria-Hungary,	275,693	177,156	206,011	171,989	113,290	114,477
Italy,	221,479	193,296	230,622	178,372	135,996	100,135
Russia,	184,897	145,141	136,093	107,347	85,257	91,157
Sweden,	26,951	27,763	46,028	30,894	23,331	18,650
Norway,	25,064	23,808	24,461	17,784	12,248	9,575
Other Europe,	62,841	66,799	62,259	38,642	31,818	23,962
TOTAL EUROPE,	974,298	767,933	814,507	619,068	469,237	424,700
Japan,	10,332	14,264	19,968	14,270	5,269	12,635
Other Asia,	14,485	11,922	9,998	8,001	8,324	5,311
All other countries,	28,306	18,751	12,573	7,404	5,088	5,926
GRAND TOTAL,	1,027,421	812,870	857,046	648,743	487,918	448,572

Of the comers from the United Kingdom England is sending more than formerly; in 1904-05, 61,732 were English, and this is the largest number since 1889. Italy is sending very large numbers, and the Italian is supplying much of the demand for brawn in the market for rude labor, and is industrious and frugal.

The bulk of immigrants always consists of persons of productive ages; this is natural, if the rule of exclusion is strictly enforced against those who would be sent for relief of the public burdens at home, since a new country offers hope for only the vigorous. The division of ages is shown thus:

FISCAL YEARS.	Ages 14 to 45	Ages under 14	Ages 45 and over	Ratio of Ages 14 to 45 to Total Number
1904,	657,155	109,150	46,565	80.8
1903,	714,053	102,431	40,562	83.3
1902,	539,254	74,063	35,426	83.1
1901,	396,516	62,562	28,840	82.5
1900,	370,342	54,624	23,506	82.5
1899,	248,187	43,983	19,545	79.6
1898,	164,905	38,267	26,127	71.9
1897,	165,181	38,627	27,024	71.5
1896,	254,519	52,741	36,007	74.1
1895,	185,005	45,087	28,444	71.9
1894,	196,322	57,569	31,740	68.9

The ratios of the least desirable ages to the total number arriving we have not taken the trouble to work out, but it is certainly striking that the most productive ages stand at about eight-tenths of the whole number; the increase in this proportion in late years and the constancy with which this proportion remains near 80 per cent are also striking. The comparative numbers of male and female form another interesting point, and we subjoin the figures:

FISCAL YEARS.	Males	Females	Total	Ratio of Males to Total
1905,	725,819	301,602	1,027,421	70.0
1904,	549,100	263,770	812,870	67.5
1903,	613,146	243,900	857,046	78.6
1902,	466,369	182,374	648,743	71.9
1901,	331,055	156,863	487,918	76.7
1900,	304,148	144,424	448,572	67.8
1899,	195,277	116,438	311,715	62.6
1898,	135,775	93,524	229,299	60.1
1897,	135,107	95,725	230,832	58.4
1896,	212,466	130,801	343,267	61.6
1895,	149,016	109,520	258,536	57.6
1894,	169,274	116,357	285,631	59.2

Here also we find what we should expect, a large preponderance of males, and this shows not only a tendency to increase, but also a steadiness only less marked than in the percentage of the most productive ages to the total arriving. What sociological problems may be involved in this continued preponderance of males we do not stop to discuss; its present economic significance is that the mouths for consumption are accompanied by the hands and muscles for production.

An increase of approximately a million annually, added to the natural increase, means a steadily increasing consumption of necessities. That the luxuries of one generation are the necessities of the next is an extravagant statement of a fundamental economic truth, for the law of progress is that mankind continually discovers new wants. From a miserable subsistence at the beginning the human race has continually demanded more and more of the products of the world. Increasing consumption is a perfectly natural law, and when we remember that consumption is not destruction, but merely a change of form, we need not revive any Malthusian worry lest the old earth should become unable to support its human load.

But the increase in population means increased production as well as increased need. Here in New York the old resident observes that the town never seemed so full, so crowded, and so busy as now; it becomes more and more so apparently, and even in the summer time when there is the usual exodus of thousands, the streets are apparently as crowded as ever. More means of local transit are provided, but, like another car added to a train, they are loaded and their capacity exhausted as soon as ready; demand seems to keep ahead of supply, and it has become a hopeless task for the present to provide, except on paper, enough bridges and tunnels to have a margin over use. The significance of the local situation in this connection is that the same condition, less intensified, exists over the country at large; production only just keeps up, or nearly up, with consumption, and demand is constantly hard upon the heels of supply.

And this is a rational explanation of the agreeably observed fact that the demand for labor continues unabated. There is idleness, but it is chiefly due to strikes. Bank deposits, and savings bank deposits as well, continue to increase. Activity is universal. We flourish by favor of natural resources and geographical position. Viewed broadly, economic conditions are chaotic rather than well-wrought and tested. Yet with all the drawbacks prosperity stays with us, and whatever setbacks come to business yield and pass instead of growing to an overpowering size.

The effect of this immigration upon prices, through increased consumption and demand, is an interesting subject for careful study and cautious foresight. Apparently the effect upon prices should be upward, and their present condition seems to reflect this, and yet the old caution must be interposed against too broad deductions, since so many causes may and do enter in as factors.

Turning back to the table of countries from which immigration comes, the small figure which the Orient cuts in it is noticeable; Europe, not Asia, has been the source of supply. In part this is natural, but in part it is artificial. The last five years, however, have been narrowing the oceans, reducing distances, destroying forever the former isolation of the United States, and making the world smaller in a sense. We did not plan this, we did not make the change, although we have had our share in it, and we are powerless to reverse it. We must compete with Oriental labor in the Orient; it is a question whether we shall compete with it on our own soil, or shall use it here. The habit of excluding or of trying to exclude the products of labor in other countries, and also the laborers themselves, while desiring to import gold, is against immovable economic laws. We must enter into international dealings upon a broader scale and a broader policy, whether we will or not. This becomes more markedly true as the western coast looms into greater importance prospectively as to Oriental trade. We cannot successfully demand an open door to trade in the Orient and take down the wall of centuries in that country for ourselves if we persist in keeping a closed door to many of the people of that country and maintain a high wall against trade upon our own side.

It is not our purpose to discuss here in any way the question of the restriction of immigration, but the reader's attention is called to the

section in this volume headed "Current Comment," where a most careful compilation has been made of the opinions of leading American citizens on the subject of immigration. Their attitude does not contemplate on one hand a great increase in restrictions, but the most radical opponents of the restrictionists would evidently open our ports to newcomers from all countries of whatever race or color. There is a golden mean between these extreme views which will probably be reached and crystalized in legislative action after the subject has been more fully considered from all points of view.

FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

The establishment of a system of furnishing employment to the unemployed in Massachusetts, free of expense, has been under discussion for some 12 years, following the creation and operation of free public employment offices in Ohio in 1890. The laws, organization, operations, class of help benefited, and supervision of free employment offices in the United States and foreign countries, as well as the financial side of the question, have been investigated by the Bureau. The results of the investigations have been presented in detail in the Reports of the Department, and in the Massachusetts Labor Bulletins. (See Report for 1893, pp. 57-81; Report for 1903, pp. 133-213; Labor Bulletin No. 14, pp. 45-55; Labor Bulletin No. 25, pp. 50, 51; Labor Bulletin No. 35, pp. 4-11.)

Some of these investigations were authorized by legislative enactment, the question of establishing free employment offices in this State having claimed the attention of successive Legislatures. The hearings on the five bills before the Legislature of 1906 have closed but, at time of writing, final action has not been taken.

Actual experience would doubtless prove in Massachusetts, as it has in other States, the necessity (or otherwise) of public maintenance of employment offices; nevertheless, if the special conditions governing the industrial situation in such cities of the Commonwealth as desired free employment offices were given the consideration that the importance of such a step would seem to warrant, then the necessity of establishing such institutions and the benefit likely to be derived therefrom would be obvious, and the risks attendant upon the experiment not so great.

A thorough investigation as to prevailing unemployment, the class and number of people that would be likely to ask for work of the free employment agencies, and the aggregate saving that would accrue to these work-people through public help in procuring positions, and the different branches of industry in which employers would patronize such offices would manifest to the lawmakers the practical and urgent need of

the State or municipalities dealing with the unemployed, — or to the contrary. An investigation of this character would naturally include the operations of the private employment agencies in these cities. The conduct of such agencies in the State is defined by law. In the city of Boston, the offices are under the supervision of the Board of Police Commissioners. Upon inquiry, we learn that intelligence offices are not obliged to make returns to the police officials, and consequently no data are available showing the business done by these agencies, the number supplied with positions, the kind of labor desired by applicants, etc.

It would seem to be a dictate of prudence to carefully examine the grounds in each city before establishing an office therein. It does not follow, necessarily, that the larger cities are the ones most in need. A State office could do much that local offices cannot. If help is needed in one city and there are men skilled in the industry out of work in another, the State office could bring the workers to the work by means of an *Employment Gazette* to be issued at frequent intervals. Knowing of these openings, the State office, co-operating with the immigration offices, could divert many of the great stream of immigrants that are now congesting our seacoast cities.

Many of the bureaus have reported as being unable to supply the demand made upon them, this being the case more especially for female help. It is an admitted fact that the experiences of the offices in the 13 States in which they are in operation have proven that the larger number of persons making application for employment are unskilled, and that the large number of employers asking for help applies for unskilled labor. In all cases domestic service employees, farm hands, and harvest hands have been largely in the majority of those reaping benefit. Granted that Massachusetts might not prove the exception in this regard, were free employment agencies established in this State, yet it is averred that the benefit and saving to the large body of unskilled labor alone would more than compensate.

The Commissioner of the Department of Labor of New York in his Fifth Annual Report recommends the abolition of the New York Free Employment Bureau. It is contended by him that the applications for employment from those in domestic service and unskilled labor are so numerous that they claim the entire time and attention of the office and prevent any proper consideration being given other classes of labor. As the demand for this class of help is far greater than the supply, it seemed to the Commissioner unnecessary for the State to act as an employment agent free.

In the summary which follows we have covered only the practical workings of the free employment offices in the several States and foreign countries, the arrangement of the divisions being alphabetical. The reader is referred to the previous publications of the Bureau, previously cited, for a more detailed study of the subject.

The 1905 Legislature of the State of Michigan provided for the establishing and maintaining of free employment bureaus in cities having a population of over 50,000. Minnesota, under Chapter 316, Acts of 1905, provided for the establishment of free public employment bureaus in cities of 50,000 inhabitants or over.

UNITED STATES.

Connecticut. A review of the work of the five free employment offices located at Hartford, Bridgeport, New Haven, Waterbury, and Norwich for the year 1905 shows that about 75 per cent of the applications made at the offices was for unskilled labor. The class of positions filled comprised 80 per cent unskilled labor and 20 per cent skilled. In 1905, the number of applications for help aggregated 10,116; of this number 3,256 were for males and 6,860 for females. The applications for situations included 4,504 from males and 7,226 from females, totalizing to 11,730. About 75 per cent of the applications for employment were filled, 8,694 (2,994 males and 5,700 females) procuring positions.

The total cost of maintaining free employment offices in Connecticut in 1905 was \$8,975, being \$1.03 per capita cost of positions filled.

The average number of situations procured during the 12 months ending November 30, 1905, was 725 a month, 250 for males, and 475 for females.

As a further indication of its increased benefit to the public it should be made known that the positions filled increased 819 in 1905 compared with 1904, while the number of situations procured during the year was 1,015 greater than in 1902.

Illinois. The three free employment offices in Chicago and the one in Peoria did a very large business in 1905. The applications for help numbered 44,577, those for males numbering 29,351 and those for females, 15,226. The applications for situations totalized to 45,323, of which number 32,073 were from males and 13,250 from females. As to positions filled, there were 39,598; of this number 27,652 were for males and 11,946 for females.

The total cost of maintaining the free employment offices in Illinois during the fiscal year ending October 1, 1905, aggregated \$31,975, the per capita cost of positions filled being 80 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents.

It is maintained by the Secretary of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Illinois that the per capita cost as here given should be divided by two; that the office securing a position for an applicant for a situation at the same time serves the applicant for help, thus serving two persons every time a position is filled. This, of course, would reduce the per capita cost to 40 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents.

Considering the grade of employment asked for at this office and the requirements met with, it is sufficient to say that all clerical, commercial, professional employments and the trades have been classified as skilled, both the males and the females, while all others have been taken as unskilled.

The applications made by employers for unskilled labor were largely in the majority, there being 41,075 against 3,502 applications for skilled help. The employees making applications for situations were 4,899 for skilled and 40,424 for unskilled. There were 36,283 positions filled in unskilled occupations, and 2,867 filled in skilled employments, while in 448 cases the class was unknown.

Kansas. The Director of the Kansas Free Employment Office Bureau states in his report for the year ending December 31, 1905, that the general prosperity of the State was so great that nearly all citizens found employment without applying to the agents of the Free Employment Bureau, except during the harvest season, and then applications for help were readily filled. In securing harvest hands much success was reported.

There were 722 applications for help filed at the department, 480 being for male help and 242 for female help. The applications for situations included 5,502 from males and 204 from females, a total of 5,706. The number of positions filled was 5,712, of which number 5,490 were positions filled by males and 222 by females. About 90 per cent of the employees making applications and of the employees who obtained positions were unskilled.

Although the main office of the Free Employment Bureau is at Topeka, agents are located in 10 places. The Bureau furnishes a large number of harvest hands to the farmers of the wheat belt, there being 5,157 positions so filled during the year. This constituted a large percentage of the male positions filled, while domestic service, with about 200 positions filled, comprised about 90 per cent of the female positions filled.

The total cost of maintaining the free employment offices for the year 1905 was \$1,300. The per capita cost of positions filled was very small.

Maryland. The free employment office of Maryland is located at Baltimore. The expense of maintaining the office is not separated from the other expenses of the Bureau of Industrial Statistics, and the work is done by the regular force employed.

During the year 1905 there were 263 applications for help, 155 being for males and 108 for females. The applications for situations numbered 451 (377 males and 74 females). The positions filled totalized 122 — 78 males and 44 females. Most of the positions filled, as well as those for which applications were made, were household help, farm help, and laborers.

Michigan. Chapter 37 of the Laws of Michigan of 1905 provides for the establishing and maintenance of free employment bureaus in cities having a population of over 50,000. The Twenty-third Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics will contain data on the free employment bureaus of Michigan. It is estimated that the cost of maintaining the new department will be \$2,000 a year.

Minnesota. Under a law approved April 19, 1905, the State of Minnesota was authorized to establish a free public employment bureau in cities of 50,000 inhabitants or over, and to provide for the maintenance of the same. The free employment office of Minnesota is located at Minneapolis. The number of applications for help and for situations are the same as that for the positions filled, inasmuch as separate records are not kept owing to the limitation of the office force.

The class of employment sought for at the free employment office was more evenly divided as to skilled and unskilled employment than has been generally the case. The number of positions filled was 4,994 (3,147 males and 1,847 females), subdivided as to skilled and unskilled labor as follows: Skilled, 2,939 and unskilled, 2,055. Common laborers are generally meant by the term "unskilled labor" at this office, it being stated that mason tenders and men of that class are nearly all organized and practically classed as skilled labor.

The cost of maintaining the free employment office at Minneapolis from June 1, 1905, to January 1, 1906, was \$1,172; the per capita cost of positions filled was about 24 cents.

Missouri. The report of superintendents of the State free employment offices at St. Louis, Kansas City, and St. Joseph show the offices to be in a very prosperous condition and of great benefit to the laboring classes. A summary of the work for the year shows that there were 12,072 male applications for positions, 1,876 female applications, making a total of 13,948. The number of applications for male help was 10,586, the number for female help 3,618, a total of 14,204. The positions filled numbered 8,400, including 7,322 male applicants and 1,078 female applicants.

Montana. The Butte free employment office is the only one in the State of Montana considered to be an unqualified success. During the year 1905 there were 11,653 applications for help, 13,555 applications for situations (7,354 males and 6,201 females), and 10,274 positions filled (5,614 males and 4,660 females). The male positions filled included 3,114 laborers, miners, section men, etc., and 1,401 ranch hands, hay makers, etc. As to the class of female help supplied, 2,947 positions were found in domestic service and private families, 769 in hotel and restaurant help, in addition to 939 miscellaneous employments. The per capita cost of positions filled was 17½ cents.

New York. The report of the free employment office in New York City shows that during the year ending September 30, 1905, there were 6,032 applicants for work, 2,502 being women and 3,530 being men. The applications for help, numbering 4,072, included 3,288 for women and 784 for men. The total number of situations procured was 4,384, including 3,526 procured by women and 858 by men. The total cost of maintaining the office was \$5,179, the per capita cost of positions filled being \$1.18. The demand for work made upon the Bureau at all times of the year was far greater than the supply. This was especially instanced in the case of female help in domestic service. The office deals almost exclusively with unskilled labor, persons having skilled employments and making application for work or procuring positions being the exception.

The Commissioner of the Department of Labor of the State of New York, under whose supervision the free employment office is operated, recommended the abolition of said institution in his last report to the Legislature.

Ohio. The free public employment offices of Ohio, located at Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati, Dayton, and Toledo, did not make any classification between the skilled and unskilled labor. From the organization of the offices in 1890 there have been 332,714 applications made for help, 388,869 for situations wanted, while 224,941 positions have been procured for applicants.

In 1905 there were 30,508 applications for help (14,440 males and 16,068 females); 24,132 applications for situations (13,794 males and 10,338 females), and 21,203 positions filled (12,011 males and 9,192 females).

The total cost of maintaining the free employment offices in Ohio for 1905 was about \$13,000, the per capita cost of positions filled being about 85 cents.

Wisconsin. It is conceded that the free employment offices in Wisconsin, located at Milwaukee, Superior, Oshkosh, and La Crosse, are doing a great work in the State. The number of applications for help for the year ending December 31, 1905, aggregated 16,462, there being 12,504 applications for male help and 3,958 for female help. The number of applications for situations included 12,300 males and 3,302 females, a total of 15,602, while the positions filled totaled 15,587 — 12,290 males and 3,297 females. A peculiar fact is noticed; contrary to general custom the males figured largely both in applications for help, for situations, and the number of positions filled, there being only about one-fourth the number of females in each case that there are males. As to the class of employees making applications for situations, only three per cent were for positions in skilled employments and 97 per cent for positions in unskilled. The positions filled included 99 per cent of unskilled labor and one per cent of skilled.

The total cost of maintaining the free employment offices for the year was \$5,300, the per capita cost of positions filled being 34 cents.

It is stated that the great service performed by the free employment offices is that they find employment for the large number of floating laborers who are simply wanting to work for a few days in order to earn enough money to move on again "to find something better." It has been the experience of those in charge of free employment departments that this class of men are usually not of the best type, and it is found in the city of Milwaukee that the police court and almshouses have not been so overcrowded since the establishment of the free employment office.

The employment offices in Wisconsin are of great benefit to immigrants who come to the State without friends to care for them. They are at once directed to the free employment office which finds them employment. It is stated the offices are being patronized more and more by manufacturers of the larger cities as a market where labor is bought and sold in a large measure to the highest bidder.

Washington. The free employment offices in the State of Washington are located in Seattle and Tacoma. The total positions supplied from the Tacoma office from July 26, 1904, to July 25, 1905, were 6,338, 1,158 positions being supplied females, 4,019 males, and 1,161 hop pickers.

The cost of maintaining the office has averaged \$70 a month, making the per capita cost of positions filled about 17½ cents. It is estimated that the same number of positions would have cost the public in a paid employment office \$9,507, or \$1.50 per capita. It is stated that the benefit derived from the free employment office at Tacoma is great.

The free employment office at Seattle is said to compare favorably with any similar institution in the United States. The Secretary of the Civil Service Commission has supervision over the Seattle employment bureau. Since the organization of the bureau the largest number of positions filled in any one year is 27,650 in 1900, the average per capita cost being 4.49 cents. Since 1900 there has been a slight decline in the number of positions found for applicants. The year 1904 is the last for which figures are available. During this year there were 20,558 applicants furnished free employment at an average per capita cost to the State of 6.36 cents. The total expenditures for maintaining the bureau amounted to \$1,308.

The public employment bureau at Seattle is stated to have filled an important position in the economy of the State, and has been of much benefit to employers and employees. It has become almost indispensable to a city of such rapid growth and such a large floating population, while the cost to the State has been merely nominal.

West Virginia. The State of West Virginia appropriated in 1905 the sum of \$800 for the maintenance of the free employment bureau which is located in Wheeling, the main office of the Bureau of Labor. Although the appropriation was inadequate for the purpose, being run in conjunction with the Department of Labor, the Commissioner was able, partially, to serve the purpose for which the bureau was intended.

The latest figures available are for the year ending May 15, 1904. Out of 2,239 applications for employment 1,711 situations were procured, this amounting to about 76 per cent. Out of 2,008 applications for help 1,711 were filled, about 85 per cent.

A summary of the operations of free employment offices in the United States follows. The total line for "positions filled" does not include the figures for Minnesota and Washington, inasmuch as information was not obtained for number of applications for help or for situations for these States.

Operations of Free Employment Offices — United States.

STATES HAVING FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.	Applications for Help	Applications for Situations	Positions Filled	Percentages of Positions Filled to Applications for Situations	Per Capita Cost of Each Position Filled
Connecticut,	10,116	11,730	8,694	74.12	\$1.03
Illinois,	44,577	45,323	39,598	87.37	0.80 ³ 4
Kansas,	722	5,706	5,712	100.11	—
Maryland,	263	451	122	27.05	—
Michigan,*	—	—	—	—	—
Minnesota,	—	—	4,994	—	0.24
Missouri,	14,204	13,948	8,400	60.22	—
Montana,	11,653	13,555	10,274	75.79	0.171 ¹ 2
Nebraska,†	—	—	—	—	—
New York,	4,072	6,032	4,384	72.68	1.18
Ohio,	30,508	24,132	21,203	87.86	0.85
Washington,†	—	—	20,558	—	0.0636
West Virginia,	2,008	2,239	1,711	76.42	—
Wisconsin,	16,462	15,602	15,587	99.90	0.34
TOTALS,	134,585	138,718	\$115,685	83.40	—

* Offices created by Laws of 1905.

† Report not received.

† Office at Seattle.

§ Not Including Minnesota or Washington.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Belgium. The following statement shows the activity of free employment offices in Belgium during the year 1905:

Applications for help: males, 12,319; females, 2,521; total, 14,840. Applications for situations: males, 14,689; females, 2,467; total, 17,156. Out of the total number of applicants for situations, positions were found for 8,233. — *Revue du Travail, Brussels, Belgium, 1905.*

Denmark. A municipal employment office was established in Copenhagen July 3, 1901. The number of positions filled during the twelve months ending September 30, 1905, was 25,158, including 10,413 positions for males, and 14,745 for females. — *Meddelanden från K. Kommerskollegii, Afdelning för Arbetsstatistik, Stockholm, Sweden, 1905.*

France. Free employment bureaus are maintained at the expense of the municipal governments in most of the important cities and towns of France. In addition to these public bureaus, free employment offices are maintained also by trade unions, employers' associations, mutual aid societies, labor exchanges, and other private organizations. The following statement shows the activity of these various free offices during the 12 months ending September 30, 1905:

Applications for help, 355,248, of which 85,818 were made to offices supported by cities and towns; 23,134 to offices supported by labor exchanges; 49,239 to offices supported by trade unions, and 197,057 to offices supported by other private organizations.

Applications for situations, 388,657, of which 81,674 were made to offices supported by cities and towns; 38,546 to offices supported by labor exchanges; 70,143 to offices supported by trade unions, and 198,294 to offices supported by other private organizations.

There were 196,306 permanent and 214,409 temporary positions filled by these different employment offices. — *Bulletin de l' Office du Travail, Paris, France, 1905.*

Germany. Reports for 276 public employment offices in Prussia show, for the year ending December 31, 1904, a total of 322,772 positions filled, the offices having received 457,411 applications for help and 602,668 applications for situations. Of the 276 offices, 191 were public offices and 85 were private offices receiving public aid.

During 1904, public employment offices in Bavaria, numbering 18, received 147,872 applications for help (84,462 for men and 63,410 for women) and 148,310 applications for situations (93,248 from men and 55,062 from women); they filled 101,516 positions (64,447 for men and 37,069 for women).

There are 17 public employment offices in Westphalia by which, in the month of June, 1905, positions were obtained for 2,123 men and 190 women, a total of 2,313; while 5,235 applications for help were received (4,520 for men and 715 for women) and 5,574 applications for situations (5,228 from men and 346 from women).

In Württemberg, in 1904, communal employment offices received 84,032 applications for help (56,972 for men and 27,060 for women), 104,374 applications for situations (86,156 from men and 18,218 from women), and filled 54,286 positions (41,305 for men and 12,981 for women).

In the same period, public offices in 13 communities in Baden filled 63,223 positions (49,080 for men and 14,143 for women), having received 89,641 applications for help (67,349 for men and 22,292 for women) and 187,191 applications for situations (164,031 from men and 23,160 from women).

In Alsace-Lorraine public employment offices received 68,981 applications for help (49,610 males and 19,371 females) and 87,765 applications for situations (66,856 males and 20,909 females), while they filled 22,105 positions (17,140 for men and 4,965 for women).

The Rhine-Main association of public employment offices covering 10 cities filled positions, during 12 months in 1904-05, for 80,143 persons (57,311 men and 22,832 women), having received 146,710 applications for situations (116,234 from men and 30,476 from women) and 114,714 applications for help (76,418 for men and 38,296 for women).

The Central Union for employment offices in Berlin, acting as public employment office for the capital city, obtained employment for 65,832 persons during 1904; the office received 97,623 applications for situations and 88,848 applications for help. — *Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, Berlin, Germany, October, 1905.*

Great Britain. From monthly reports of the work of labor and employment bureaus in Great Britain, published in the *Labour Gazette* of the London Board of Trade, we obtain the following statements as to the activity of the general labor bureaus and the special employment bureaus for women during the year 1905.

The labor bureaus received 74,886 applications for situations and 24,565 applications for help, and filled 25,650 positions, of which number 6,665 were permanent and 18,985 temporary. Labor bureaus in the city of London received 48,798* applications for situations, 13,305 applications for help, and filled 18,393* positions; while the provincial bureaus received 25,205 applications for situations, 11,257* applications for help, and filled 6,807* positions. Of the total number of positions filled by all labor bureaus, 22,715 were for men or boys and 2,935 for women or girls; of the former number 4,992 were permanent and 17,723 temporary; while of the latter 1,673 were permanent and 1,262 temporary. Considering the occupations, we find that the greatest number of positions filled for men

* These figures do not make the totals given, but are taken as found in the reports.

(5,500) was for bill distributors, 371 being more or less permanent and 5,129 temporary; the next greatest number (1,627) was in the building trades, 556 being permanent and 1,071 temporary; 249 general laborers were provided with employment, 28 permanently and 221 temporarily; the remaining 15,339 positions covered a variety of occupations, the work in 4,037 cases being permanent and in 11,302 cases temporary.

Of the 2,935 positions secured for women by the labor bureaus, 1,247 were for charwomen, etc., 219 of them being permanent and 1,028 temporary; 1,017 positions were secured for domestic servants, 847 being for permanent work and 170 for temporary work; the remaining 671 positions, of which 607 were permanent and 64 temporary, covered a variety of occupations.

The special employment bureaus for women received during the year 8,823 applications for situations and 7,923 applications for help, the positions filled numbering 2,177. The following table shows the activity of these bureaus by classes of employees:

CLASSIFIED WORKERS.	Applications for Situations	Appli- ca- tions for Help	PLACES FILLED		
			Permanent	Temporary	Total
Domestic servants,*	4,921	5,744	1,046	261	1,307
Dressmakers, milliners, etc.,	674	786	211	143	354
Secretaries, clerks, typists, etc.,	647	225	84	75	159
Superintendents, forewomen, etc.,	665	249	65	18	83
Apprentices and learners,	64	215	47	1	48
Shop assistants,	165	28	8	6	14
Miscellaneous,	1,687	676	163	49	212
TOTALS,	8,823	7,923	1,624	553	2,177

* Including nurses, housekeepers, and mothers' helps.

Holland. The report of free employment offices for the Netherlands covers the work of two municipal labor exchanges, 15 free offices maintained by workingmen's unions and other private organizations, besides the Central Labor Exchange at Amsterdam.

Statistics of the Central Labor Exchange for 1904 and the first six months of 1905 show that there were 8,382 applications for help, 14,443 applications for situations, and 6,387 positions filled. A summary of the work of the two municipal exchanges for the first half of 1905 shows 343 applications for help, 677 applications for situations, and 240 positions filled.

Another municipal labor exchange has been established recently at The Hague, but at the time of publication of the report from which these figures are taken it had not begun operations.

Reports for 15 free employment offices maintained by private organizations in 10 cities show that during the first six months of 1905 these offices registered 1,223 applications for help, 2,245 applications for situations, and 1,362 positions filled.—*Tijdschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, No. 12, Netherlands, 1905.*

Hungary. In 1904, the last year for which statistics are available for the Budapest free employment office, there were 53,590 applications for help; of this number 46,255 were for male help and 7,335 for female help. The applications for situations numbered 82,967, including 74,611 from males and 8,356 from females. There were 33,656 males who obtained situations through the free employment office, and 5,982 females, making a total of 39,638 persons obtaining positions.

Considering the industries in which the greatest number of positions for males were filled during the year we find 10,911 in clothing, 6,032 in woodworking, 4,476 in the building trades, 3,804 in metal working, and 2,986 in commerce and trade. The largest number of positions filled for females was also in the clothing industry, there being 1,387, followed by 1,333 in the paper industry. Of the whole number of persons for whom situations were procured 1,568 were apprentices, 1,436 of these being boys and 132 girls.

The cost of maintaining the Budapest office for the year 1904 was about \$12,000, of which sum \$2,000 was paid by the city and the remainder by the department of trade.

From the establishment of the Budapest office in 1900 to the close of 1904 there were 233,135 applications for help, 425,524 applications for situations, and 163,782 positions filled.—*Soziale Rundschau, Vienna, Austria, August, 1905.*

Norway. The activity of municipal employment offices in four cities in Norway, in 1904, is shown in the following summary: * Applications for help, 16,298; applications for situations, 29,819; positions filled, 14,043.

By far the largest amount of work was done at the office at Christiania, there being 11,910 applications for help filed in this city, and 22,810 applications for situations, while 10,453 positions were filled.

During the nine months ending September 30, 1905, the reports of the same offices show 15,723 applications for help, 27,968 applications for situations, and 13,075 places filled.—*Meddelanden från K. Kommerskollegii, Afdelning för Arbetsstatistik, Stockholm, Sweden, 1905.*

Sweden. The following statement shows the activity of the municipal employment office in Göteborg for the year ending September 30, 1905: Applications for help, 10,331; applications for situations, 11,327; positions filled, 6,677. During the same period the municipal office at Helsingborg obtained employment for 2,767 persons, 1,866 of whom were males and 901 females.

Considering the occupations of the persons obtaining positions through the office in Göteborg, there were 3,779 in personal and domestic service, 1,551 in commerce and trade, and 1,051 in manufactures, these three branches representing 95.6 per cent of the total number of positions filled.—*Meddelanden från K. Kommerskollegii, Afdelning för Arbetsstatistik, Stockholm, Sweden, 1905.*

Switzerland. A review of the work of the employment office maintained by the municipal labor bureau of Zürich during the year 1904 shows 18,759 applications for help, 17,428 applications for situations, and 13,486 positions filled. By a decree issued February 23, 1905, the city council of Zürich authorized the local municipal labor bureau to become the central office for Swiss labor and employment offices. This action was taken in accordance with the recommendations made by the federal commission appointed, in July, 1903, to investigate the need of a federal labor office. The municipal labor bureau of Zürich assumed its new functions on April 1, 1905. Its first duty is to encourage and support local municipal employment offices throughout Switzerland, and it is required to issue regularly, for the benefit of Swiss and foreign employment offices, a complete list of applications made to it for employment or help.—*Soziale Rundschau, Vienna, Austria, 1905.*

TRADE UNIONS

UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

To obtain an accurate account of the trade unions of the United States has been difficult, inasmuch as some of the States have no official records of their unions. As a matter of fact, some of the trade unions themselves have very incomplete reports, the number of members being particularly hard to procure.

We were able to obtain certain data on the subject from the reports of the Bureaus of Labor and Industrial Statistics in the various States, although the latest investigation on trade unions in some of the States is not as recent as we would wish. Therefore the summary which we present, by divisions, is approximate, and not absolute, but tends to show, by number of unions, membership, and accompanying remarks, the trend of the trade-union movement. The 26 divisions considered show a total of about 11,100 local trade unions, the membership reported for 8,908 of these unions approximating 1,089,000.

It must be borne in mind that the data do not cover the United States in its entirety, but those States are included where labor organizations would be most likely to obtain and flourish.

The statistics given for foreign countries were taken in almost every instance from the latest foreign reports which contained data on the subject, and also include facts on the question obtained by correspondence with the officials of foreign offices.

UNITED STATES.

California. The number of separate labor organizations reported to be in existence in California in 1904 was 805, against 495 in 1902, a gain of 310, or 62 per cent. The carpenters organizations increased in two years from 32 to 66; the machinists increased from eight to 17; miners from eight to 34; sheet metal workers from four to 11; typographical from 12 to 27, and wood-workers from four to 14.

In San Francisco there were 272 separate labor organizations in 1904; in Oakland there were 50; in Sacramento the greatest gain is to be noticed, where, in 1902, the number was 36; it is now 72.

If the deductions of the preceding report are true, viz.: that the number of unions in the State was 495, and that there was approximately a membership of 67,500, on the same basis there would now be 110,000 members of the various organizations.

Colorado. At the close of 1904, there were reported 357 labor unions with a membership of 44,841, in addition to 54 railroad organizations with a membership of 4,496. The organizations in the State thus totalized 427, showing a membership of 49,337, but as it has been reported that the number belonging to more than one organization was 500, the total trade union membership would aggregate but 48,837. There were 16 trades assemblies, building trades councils, and other central bodies reported.

The so-called contest in Colorado between the American Labor Union and the American Federation of Labor that was waged for about three years has been practically abandoned, and existing conditions are harmonious. Both organizations, looking toward the up-building of the different organizations, are affiliated with the central body and working for the best interests of the wage-earner in general. It is stated that the number of unions and the membership are both similar. This is actually the case, due to the fact that some of the labor organizations are of the opinion that the business and transactions of the unions should be kept secret. This idea works to the detriment of the working class, inasmuch as it precludes the publication of correct data.

Connecticut. In 1904 there were 524 organizations in Connecticut which were classified as labor unions. The 1904 figures show a decrease in the number of unions of 67 over the preceding year. Although it is stated that in several instances consolidation of unions took place, unions are distributed over the State in 47 different municipalities. The largest number of unions was in New Haven, there being 67, followed by 63 in Hartford and 37 in Bridgeport.

Illinois. The latest official statistics of the trade unions of Illinois are for the year 1901. At that time there were 592 unions recorded, 586 of these reporting total membership of 140,733. The number of these unionists reported as being employed in 1901 was 131,969. The average cost per member to maintain organization in 1901 was \$7.06. The reports from unions as to the insurance of members were very meagre, although it was shown that the plan for the insurance of members of some of the trades or industries had been in vogue for more than thirty years. The different unions of the railroad employees give the most complete returns, 4,564 members being insured; team drivers report 15,530 members insured. In the aggregate, 142 unions reported having the insurance feature in their organization; 112 of these reported 26,459 members carrying insurance in amounts ranging from \$2,500 to \$5,000. The railroad and letter carriers were insured in the largest amounts of any unions reporting.

Iowa. A summary of the labor organizations of Iowa among the different crafts shows a total of 830 for the State, 762 of these reporting a total membership of 44,722. About 125 unions were found in the building trades. The International Association of Retail Clerks had 30 locals, while the United Mine Workers of America had 84 organizations, the largest number in any single craft.

Kansas. The number of labor organizations in the State making returns in 1902 was 127, the total membership at the close of the year for 116 organizations being 7,715, an increase of 2,568 members over the preceding year. The average annual cost to each member for maintaining organization aside from insurance was \$7.23. Of 110 unions reporting, the average percentage of trades organized was 80.5.

Kentucky. Organized labor has kept pace with the industrial growth and progress of Kentucky, and has within its ranks a large percentage of the wage-earners of the State.

Although a large number of unions did not make returns to the Labor Inspector of Kentucky in accordance with his request for information pertaining to the unions, at the close of 1903 there were found to be 145 unions in the State with a total membership of 12,060. Out of 145 unions 101 reported that the organization had an agreement or contract with employers.

Louisiana. The latest report from Louisiana on labor organizations shows a total membership of 9,400 for 38 unions. It was found that a large majority of the unions had sick and death benefits, while only 12 reported weekly strike benefits and only one union weekly accident benefits.

Maine. At the close of the year 1905 the number of trade unions reported was 212, a decrease of 45 over 1904. Membership was reported for 194 unions, the number of members totaling 13,798. The trade unions are distributed among a large number of industries, the largest number in one industry being 20, comprising the granite cutters, and 30 in the building trades.

Maryland. The returns from the labor organizations of the State of Maryland for 1905 as stated by the Maryland Bureau of Statistics and Information are not as full or satisfactory in number as in 1904. The condition of the unions, however, is reported to be very satisfactory and generally prosperous. The 84 unions reporting show a total membership of 15,998, which in comparison with the returns of 14,056 members for 112 unions in 1904 shows a gratifying increase

in membership. Thirty-three unions reported that members are working eight hours a day; 23 as working nine hours; one working seven and nine hours; three working eight and nine hours; 13 working 10 hours; one working nine and 10 hours; two working 12 hours; one working 12 and 14 hours. This compared with 1904 shows a gradual decrease of working hours, which means employment of more persons to do work done before in longer hours and indicates greater demands for labor and higher wages.

Massachusetts. The number of unions represented in the several cities and towns is approximately 1,325, with about 30 State branches or national or international secretaries and organizers. As compared with the number of unions in 1904, the 1905 presentation shows a loss of over 100 organizations.

As was to be expected the largest number of trade unions is in the city of Boston, there being 280 in this centre; followed by 64 in Springfield; 60 in Worcester; 56 in Brockton; 54 in Lawrence; 49 in Lowell; 48 in Lynn; 38 each in Fall River and Fitchburg; and 33 in New Bedford. These 10 cities represent 720 organizations, or about 55 per cent of the whole number in the State. The remaining 600 unions are distributed over 109 cities and towns.

In 1905 the building trades represent by far the largest number of unions, there being 339 under this caption, which includes 120 carpenters' unions; 59 unions of painters, decorators, and paperhangers; 47 unions of bricklayers and plasterers; 39 unions of plumbers, gasfitters, and steamfitters; 27 unions of building laborers, besides organizations in other branches of the building industry.

In numerical importance the transportation employees' unions follow the building trades, their representation being 131; followed by metal workers with 110; boot and shoe workers, 81; printing employees, 52; textile workers, 48; laborers, 43; machinists, woodworkers, and hotel and restaurant employees, 38 each; stone workers, granite cutters, and quarry workers, 35; and clothing employees, barbers, and retail clerks, 30 each. These 11 branches comprise 1,043 unions, this number being approximately 80 per cent of the total unions in the State.

Michigan. The number of unions making report in 1903 was 589, an increase of 253 over the previous year. The membership in 1903 was 43,069, showing an increase of 16,179 over 1902. The average number of members to each union in 1903 was 84.4, while in 1902 the average number was 80. Reports that hours of labor had been shortened were received from 230 unions, while 359 reported that there had been no change. One hundred and forty-one unions paid strike benefits to the amount of \$24,099, the average amount for each union being \$170. The number of unions reporting sick benefit funds was 219, the aggregate amount paid being \$25,099, making an average to each union of \$115.

Minnesota. The year 1904 showed a remarkable increase in the number of labor organizations, the number increasing in four years from 172 organizations to 318 and the membership from 15,380 to 25,432. This does not include the entire number of trade unions in Minnesota, as many failed to make return. The cities of St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Duluth take 197 of the organizations reported, the membership in these three cities being 22,117. Many of the unions in reporting upon working hours and daily wages state that wages had been increased and that there had been an appreciable decrease in working hours since organization.

Missouri. The trades and labor organizations of the State for the year 1904 showed a decrease in membership and number as compared with the previous year. This is almost entirely due to the loss of organizations which came into existence with the great organization boom which covered the country during the years 1902 and 1903. Decreased employment is shown in 1904 as compared with 1903. The number of unions shows a decrease from 741 to 624, while the membership has decreased from 98,102 in 1903 to 82,033 in 1904. The per cent of adult wage earners in organized trades and occupations in 1903 was 79.13 and in 1904, 80.82. The average number of hours worked daily by union members in 1903 was 9.33; in 1904, 9.21. The total amount expended during 1903 for out-of-work, sick, accident, strike, and funeral benefits amounted to \$380,653, and in 1904 to \$319,243. There were 211 trade unions reported from St. Louis, 75 from Kansas City, and 40 from St. Joseph.

Montana. At the close of 1902 the labor unions of Montana were reported to be in a very prosperous condition and relations between the different affiliations extremely harmonious. No returns were made as to membership of the several unions, although a total of approximately 235 labor organizations made report. Of these, about 90 were affiliated with the American Labor Union, 70 with the American Federation of Labor, 30 with the Western Federation of Miners, 30 with railroad organizations, four with United Mine Workers, while 10 were not affiliated with the American Labor Union or the American Federation of Labor.

Nebraska. The latest official report of labor organizations in Nebraska records the existence of about 70 such bodies, 37 of which are located in Omaha, 12 in South Omaha, 12 in Lincoln, the others being scattered over the State. Most of the organizations pay either sick, death, or out-of-work benefits; 61 per cent of the members carry life insurance, while over 50 per cent carry insurance in fraternal societies outside of their union. Members of the unions considered represented the high paid labor in the skilled trades, the average daily wages being \$2.36.

New Hampshire. In 1904 considerable increase was reported in the number of labor organizations as compared with the past two years. The Trade Union Directory of that State includes a total of 138 unions with an approximate membership of 8,500. The building trades are largely represented, both in the number of unions and membership.

New Jersey. The latest official study of the subject of trade unions, in 1901, shows that reports were received from 63 unions. Of these, carpenters and joiners furnished 15 reports, glass workers nine, painters and decorators seven, typographical employees seven, in addition to 25 unions distributed among 15 occupations. The total membership reported by these unions was 13,380. During the year ending October 31, 1903, there were 52 new trade and labor unions established in New Jersey. Although carpenters formed the largest number of the new unions, there were persons included engaged in many occupations. The reported reason for the formation of many of these unions was for the redress of grievances, either real or fancied. For the year ending September 30, 1904, 12 new unions were reported.

New York. In the September, 1905, Bulletin of the Department of Labor of New York the following remarks are made concerning Trade Unions in New York: "The successful establishment of peace industrial relations through the adoption of the joint agreement system presupposes the existence of well-organized trade unions, the officers of which meet the employers' representatives in joint conference. The trade union being thus the primary factor in the movement toward industrial peace, much interest attaches to the statistics of trade unions." The total number of unions reported at the close of March, 1905, was 2,418, the total membership being 374,252. New York City had 662 unions, the total membership of which was 245,978, thus far outranking any other city or town in the State. In numerical importance New York City is followed by Buffalo with 184 unions, and a membership of 30,158; Rochester is the next best unionized city, with 91 unions and 12,130 members; Syracuse follows with 78 unions and 8,162 members; Albany next with 82 unions and 7,891 members. These five cities represent 45.37 per cent of the entire number of trade unions in the State of New York and 81.31 per cent of the membership.

Ohio. The latest official figures pertaining to trade unions in Ohio are for the year 1900. The report includes returns from 956 local unions representing 123 occupations, and a total membership of 79,884. Since 1880 the labor organizations increased from 40 to 956 in 1900, during which year 300 new locals were organized and 25 unions disbanded. In two years, from 1898 to 1900, the total membership increased from 37,041 to 79,884. The number of unions reported as having wage agreements was 495.

The receipts for the year aggregated \$276,089. The average weekly out-of-work benefits per member were \$4.96; average strike benefits per member per week, \$5.68; average sick and accident benefits per member per week, \$4.84; average death benefits per member, \$175.31. The total benefits paid during the year amounted to \$69,361.

Oregon. The Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics in his first biennial report for the year ending September 30, 1904, remarks upon labor organizations as follows:

"Labor unions, correctly conducted, are a benefit to the State, to capital, and to humanity in general. A union means more than the purpose of raising wages. Unions, rightly conducted, should be and are educators inculcating ideas of self-government, industry, sobriety, honesty, conservatism, and fraternal love, and take such an interest in their employers' business success that, rather than embarrass them in times of business depression, they reduce their own compensation.

The better judgment does not always prevail, and mistakes are made hurting both labor and capital, but it must be borne in mind that it took thousands of years to arrive at our present civilization, and we can not expect that all labor organizations can rise to a state of perfection in a day."

The total number of local unions in the State at that time was 94; the membership reported by 91 totalized to 7,758. The unions having the largest membership were railway employees with 1,777; carpenters with 655; longshoremen, marine and transport workers, 467; bartenders and brewery workmen, 421; musicians, 348; painters, 344; and printing trade, 342.

Porto Rico. Four years ago there were no trade unions in the Island of Porto Rico. To-day the Free Federation of Workingmen of Porto Rico reports the affiliation of some 125 local unions with an aggregate membership of about 16,000. Most of the local unions hold charters from international unions in the United States.

Virginia. A notable feature brought out in the returns of the trade unions for 1901 is the fact that many of the members are making a special study of technical knowledge in connection with their occupation, which would indicate a bright future for the workingman and the manufacturing interests. There were 114 organizations in the State with a membership of 12,398. The total amount paid out for assistance was \$34,079.24.

Washington. During the year 1904 but 88 unions made returns, showing a membership of 7,403 as against 130 unions reporting in 1902, with a membership of 11,593. The average initiation fee is \$12.62; average monthly dues, 73 cents; average death benefit, \$92.36; average strike benefit, about \$6 a week; average sick benefit, \$5.50 a week; average out-of-work benefit, \$3.45 a week.

West Virginia. Organized labor has kept pace with the industrial growth and progress of the State and has within its ranks a large percentage of the wage-earners. In 1902 there were 152 unions with a membership of 9,535. Thirty-seven unions pay death and strike benefits, 32 pay death, sickness, and strike benefits, 25 pay strike benefits, 19 pay sick and death benefits, 17 pay death benefits, three pay sick and strike benefits, and two pay sick benefits.

Wisconsin. About 75 labor unions made report to the Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics, the total membership being 5,330. Eighteen unions were in Milwaukee.

The following summary gives a tabular showing, by States, of the number and membership of trade unions, it being again stated that the membership in many cases was estimated and not absolute.

Number and Membership of Trade Unions.

STATES AND COUNTRIES.	Number	Membership	STATES AND COUNTRIES.	Number	Membership
<i>United States.</i>					
California,	805	110,000	Montana,	235	-
Colorado,	427	48,887	Nebraska,	70	-
Connecticut,	524	-	New Hampshire,	138	8,500
Illinois,	586	140,733	New Jersey,	63	13,380
Iowa,	762	44,722	New York,	2,418	374,252
Kansas,	116	7,715	Ohio,	956	79,884
Kentucky,	145	12,060	Oregon,	91	7,758
Louisiana,	38	9,400	Porto Rico,	125	16,000
Maine,	194	13,798	Virginia,	114	12,398
Maryland,	84	15,998	Washington,	88	7,403
Massachusetts,	1,325	-	West Virginia,	152	9,535
Michigan,	589	43,069	Wisconsin,	75	5,330
Minnesota,	318	25,432			
Missouri,	624	82,033	TOTALS,	11,062	1,088,237

FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Austria. On December 31, 1904, there were 8,574 workingmen's organizations in Austria, classified under the following heads: General labor unions, 1,808 (21.08 per cent); educational unions, 1,263 (14.73 per cent); clubs, 659 (7.69 per cent); unions in special trades, 3,284 (38.30 per cent); friendly societies, 966 (11.27 per cent); and domestic aid societies, 594 (6.93 per cent). In the four years from the close of 1900 to the close of 1904 the number of workingmen's organizations increased by 1,643, or 23.71 per cent, the greatest increase being 941 in the special trades unions, or 57.27 per cent of the general increase for the period. Of the total number of unions reported for 1904, 6,350, or 74.06 per cent, were affiliated with some national organization, while 2,224, or 25.94 per cent, were independent. The aggregate membership of the 8,574 organizations was 1,448,357, the largest membership in a single class being 613,487 (42.36 per cent) in the friendly societies. The unions affiliated with national organizations aggregated 977,901 members, or 67.52 per cent of the whole number of organized workingmen. The membership of the 1,808 general labor unions was 195,062, or 13.47 per cent of the total; and the 3,284 unions in special trades counted 300,186 members, or 20.73 per cent. — *Die Arbeitervereine in Österreich, 1900-1904. Vienna, 1905.*

Belgium. Workingmen's organizations in Belgium have, to some extent, availed themselves of the privilege of becoming legally recognized—a privilege granted by the trade union law of March 31, 1898. The number of recognized unions is small in comparison with the total number of workingmen's organizations in the kingdom. During 1898 only nine obtained recognition; in 1899, 103 were added; in 1900, 108; and in 1901, 134. A much larger number applied for recognition but were refused because of failure to comply with the terms of the law in some respect. During the four years considered, only two recognized organizations were dissolved, so that at the close of 1901 the aggregate number was 352, of which 304 (86.36 per cent) were unions of agriculturists, 18 (5.11 per cent) of laborers and artisans, 16 (4.55 per cent) of persons exercising a liberal profession, six (1.71 per cent) of employers, three (0.85 per cent) of clerks, and one (0.28 per cent) was a mixed union of employers and employees, the remaining four (1.14 per cent) being unclassified. These 352 organizations counted 26,700 active members and 704 honorary members. The total receipts of recognized unions increased from \$237, in 1898, to \$54,015, in 1901, the expenses increasing in the same period from \$59 to \$38,695. The agricultural unions act as agents for their members, buying tools, machinery, cattle, seeds, etc., to sell to them; in 1901, the aggregate expenditure in this service was \$457,152, benefiting 11,280 members. A few unions maintain free employment offices and consultation bureaus; and since 1900 the Ministry of Industry and Labor and the Ministry of Agriculture have

awarded the unions small sums of money to assist them in supporting their various activities.—*Rapport Relatif à l'Exécution de la Loi du 31 Mars 1898 sur les Unions Professionnelles pendant les Années 1898-1901. Brussels, 1904.*

Statistics of recognized organizations, published in the *Revue du Travail*, showed that, during 1904, 162 associations received recognition, 130, or 80.25 per cent, of these being unions of persons engaged in agriculture, including the raising of hares, goats, etc. During the year seven unions, all agricultural, were officially dissolved.

During 1905, according to figures obtained from the source quoted above, 137 organizations received recognition and 14 were officially dissolved; unions of persons engaged in agriculture numbered 85, or 62.04 per cent of the number recognized during the year.

Canada. According to the records of the Department of Labour the total number of labor organizations in Canada is 1,609, the largest number, 796, being in Ontario, followed by 257 in Quebec, 194 in British Columbia, 117 in Nova Scotia, and the others distributed in the various provinces. The Department has not officially investigated the membership of the various organizations, but from available information it is approximated that the total membership of the 1,609 organizations is 200,000.

Denmark. From a letter received in August, 1905, from Mr. Michael Koefoed, director of the National Bureau of Statistics of Denmark, we derive the following data:

The trade union movement in Denmark began about 1870 with one union having 314 members. In 1880 the number of unions had increased to 46 and in 1885 to 143; in 1899 there were 1,195 organizations with an aggregate membership of 96,295. These unions are grouped in trade alliances and most of the trade alliances are in turn united in a general organization. In 1904 there were in all 57 trade alliances with 1,119 local sections and an aggregate membership of 81,735. There were also 37 strictly local unions belonging to no alliance, most of them having their headquarters in Copenhagen; they had an aggregate membership of 8,376. In addition to these alliances there is a "Christian Labor Alliance" for which, however, statistics were not obtainable. Trade unionists in Denmark embrace not only craftsmen, properly so-called, but clerks, journalists, accountants, etc. Among the unions covered in the report for 1904, those in the building trades showed the largest membership, the aggregate for 180 unions being nearly 13,500 members.

England. During 1905, the *Labour Gazette* of the Board of Trade reported 23 new organizations registered under the Trade Union Act and 73 organizations dissolved or having registration canceled.

At the close of the year 1903, according to figures published in the *Tenth Abstract of Labour Statistics for the United Kingdom*, there were 1,166 trade unions in the United Kingdom with a total membership of 1,902,308. Considering the occupations represented, we find the greatest number of organized workingmen in mining and quarrying, there being 527,710 miners and quarrymen in 68 unions, followed by 336,626 metal workers, engineers, and shipbuilders in 242 unions, 237,689 building trades workmen in 115 unions, 219,427 textile workers in 247 unions, 154,005 transportation workers in 56 unions, and 102,956 general laborers in 22 unions, the remaining 323,895 organized workingmen being grouped in 416 unions. Of the total number of unionists, 119,416, or 6.28 per cent, were women.

The funds of the 100 principal trade unions aggregated £4,550,775 (\$22,144,071) at the close of the year, the aggregate membership being 1,133,640; the income for the year was £2,073,612 (\$10,090,196) or 36s 7d (\$8.90) for each member; and the expenditures amounted to £1,895,015 (\$9,221,143) or 33s 5½d (\$8.14) a member. Of the total expenditures for the year, the expenditure for dispute benefit amounted to £172,418 (\$838,986), for unemployed, etc., benefits £504,214 (\$2,453,505), for sick and accident benefits £360,941 (\$1,756,339), for funeral benefits £93,088 (\$452,966), and for superannuation benefit £239,734 (\$1,166,546), the remaining £524,620 (\$2,552,801) being used for other grants and working expenses.

France. At the beginning of 1905, there were 10,987 trade organizations of all kinds in France with 1,719,196 members, the number of organized workingmen having been increased by 81,243, or 4.96 per cent, during the year 1904, while 900 new unions had been formed in the same period, an increase of 8.92 per cent. Of the total number of unions on January 1, 1905, 7,871, or 71.64 per cent, were industrial and commercial syndicates, and 3,116, or 28.36 per cent, agricultural syndicates. Of the industrial and commercial syndicates, 3,102 with 252,036 members were syndicates of employers; 4,625 with 781,344 members, syndicates of employees; and 144 with 25,863 members, mixed syndicates. On the date under consideration there were 93,916 women reported as members of trade unions, being 5.46 per cent of all unionists; 83,825 (89.26 per cent) of these were affiliated with commercial and industrial syndicates, and 10,091 (10.74 per cent) with agricultural syndicates. Of the former class, 6,988 were found in employers' syndicates, 69,405 in employees' syndicates, and 7,432 in the mixed syndicates.

Trade unions in France are grouped in two kinds of central organizations: Unions of syndicates, provided for by the law of March 21, 1884, for the regulation of trade organizations, and the labor exchanges. The unions of syndicates numbered 314 on January 1, 1905, 160, or 50.96 per cent, being unions of employees' syndicates; 97, or 30.89 per cent, of employers' syndicates; 10, or 3.18 per cent, of mixed syndicates; and 47, or 14.97 per cent, of agricultural syndicates. The numbers of syndicates and members represented were not given for the 47 agricultural unions; the remaining 267

unions represented 5,125 syndicates with 872,429 members. There were, on the same date, 114 labor exchanges, having 2,360 affiliated syndicates representing 377,561 organized workingmen. The labor exchanges act as employment offices, principally. In addition, however, their halls serve as union headquarters, and are used for meetings, lecture courses, and conferences. The labor exchanges also maintain libraries and issue trade union publications.

In accordance with the law of March 21, 1884, the department of commerce is notified of the creation or dissolution of labor organizations. A report of the associations declared during the month is published in each monthly Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor at Paris. From these reports we find that during 1905 the department was notified of the creation of 793 syndicates having 50,853 members. Of these, 236, with 8,463 members, were syndicates of employers, 544, with 41,835 members, syndicates of employees, and 13, with 555 members, mixed syndicates. During the year, 27 new unions of syndicates and 5 new labor exchanges were reported, while the department was notified of the dissolution of 20 syndicates, having 965 members, and one union of syndicates. — *Bulletin de l'Office du Travail, Paris, 1905.*

Germany. Trade unions in Germany are of four kinds: Hirsch-Duncker unions, socialist unions and federations, Christian unions, and independent unions.

On December 31, 1904, there were 2,172 local Hirsch-Duncker unions having an aggregate membership of 111,889 and funds amounting to 3,421,796.43 marks (\$814,387.55). These funds included trade union funds of 1,398,288.06 marks (\$332,792.56), sick benefit and burial funds of 1,381,430.61 marks (\$328,780.49), and autonomous burial funds of 642,077.76 marks (\$152,814.51). Comparison with the figures for 1903 shows that the number of unions increased by 57 and the aggregate membership by 1,674. During the year the income of the unions amounted to 1,069,735.93 marks (\$254,597.15). Among the items of expense were 13,633.74 marks (\$3,244.83) for legal protection, 256,620.27 marks (\$61,075.62) for strike benefits and out-of-work pay; 60,544.74 marks (\$14,409.65) for work of employment bureaus and for printing and advertising; the aggregate expenditures for the year for all the unions were 888,490.80 marks (\$211,460.81). — *Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, Berlin, Germany, August, 1905.*

According to figures published in October, 1905, in the Bulletin of the *Office du Travail* at Paris, the German socialist unions numbered 5,559 in 1904 and counted 924,026 members; these unions were grouped in 433 local associations, of which number 98 maintained employment bureaus, 205 had libraries for the use of members, while educational courses and lectures formed a part of the activity of 48; some of the associations own their headquarters and many count among their interests the management of inns or taverns. Membership fees vary from about one cent to 62 cents. The aggregate income of 405 local associations, for which reports were given, was 395,712 marks (\$94,179.46) in 1904, of which 220,713 marks (\$52,529.69) was received in membership fees. The total expenditures of the central associations, aggregating 662,423 marks (\$157,656.67), include strike benefits to the amount of 307,798 marks (\$73,255.92). For the most part, however, the expense of strikes is borne by the central federations, and the amount paid out by them for strike benefits in 1904 was 5,869,519 marks (\$1,396,945.52).

Information for 1904 relative to the Christian unions and independent organizations in Germany was not available to the Bureau.

Holland. By special communication with the *Centraal Bureau voor Sociale Adviezen* at Amsterdam we have obtained data for the following account.

Trade unionism in Holland has during most of its development been more or less closely allied with politics. Previous to 1870, when the first strong impulse was given to unionism, there were not more than 20 unions in existence and practically all of these were organizations of craftsmen, the factory workmen not being organized until after unionism had become well established. Up to about the year 1880 a central organization, known as the Dutch Workmen's Union (*Nederlandsch Werklieden Verbond*) and belonging, in politics, to the "liberal" party, directed the entire labor movement. During the following decade unionism was controlled by the socialist party, which gained prominence in Holland about 1878. The first national union, that of the compositors, was founded in 1866, but the great mass of national trade organizations sprang up between 1890 and 1900; and 1893 saw the founding of the National Labor Secretaryship (*Nationaal Arbeidssecretariaat*) as a central organization for both the trade-union and political movements and embracing many of the most important general unions, some local organizations, and the two socialist parties. In 1897, however, all political parties were excluded from membership under a new rule, but political controversies continued to affect the organization, and gradually the more important unions withdrew, so that at present there are left in the National Labor Secretaryship only some local societies and small national unions and federations, in sympathy with the free socialist party.

During 1905 a new central organization was formed by unions holding modern views of trade-unionism, the General National Diamond Workers Union, the largest of Dutch unions, being the promoter of this new organization.

Owing to religious controversies in Holland but few unions have found it possible to develop on neutral lines, and the Roman Catholic and Protestant workmen have for the most part formed separate unions for which separate national organizations have also been established. In some cities and towns unions have formed local central organizations which in recent years have acquired much influence, this being especially the case in Amsterdam and Rotterdam.

The strongest and best organized union in Holland is the neutral organization of diamond workers, a union comparable with the best English or German unions; it counts 7,400 members out of 9,000 persons employed in the trade. The diamond cutting industry is confined entirely to the city of Amsterdam, wages are high, and the long apprenticeship to be served makes it difficult for workmen to enter the trade — a combination of circumstances that has made a strong neutral organization possible. The 15 most important national unions embrace 628 branches, with an aggregate membership of 39,762 out of approximately 239,900 persons employed in the trades represented.

About 80 periodicals are issued by trade unions.

Statistics of local trade unions in Holland are given in a report issued in July, 1905, by the Central Bureau of Statistics. According to these figures there were 1,724 local unions, in 1905, reporting affiliation with 103 general organizations.

Hungary. On June 1, 1904, there were 15 general and 29 local labor organizations in Hungary, with a total membership of 52,410 persons, 1,773 of whom, or 3.38 per cent, were women. Of the total 52,410 trade unionists, 85.40 per cent, or 44,758, were members of the general organizations, there being among these 14,520 (32.44 per cent) building workmen, 10,830 (24.20 per cent) iron and metal workers, and 5,219 (11.66 per cent) printing trades workmen. Of the 29 local organizations 16, or 55.17 per cent, were Budapest unions, their aggregate membership of 4,715 representing nine per cent of all organized workingmen in the country. — *Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, Berlin, Germany, December, 1904.*

Italy. Labor organizations in Italy are divided into four groups: Federations of industrial workmen; federations of agricultural laborers; chambers of labor; and the Catholic trade unions. Outside these four great groups there are many isolated unions. The federations of industrial workmen are united in a trade union committee; the agricultural laborers, in a national committee for agricultural laborers. The first trade union committee was formed in 1902; the first chamber of labor, December 6, 1889.

According to the Italian Labor Bureau, 20 unions of industrial workmen, for which reports were given, had 175,102 members for the last six months of 1904. These figures are smaller than are shown by records of the national labor bodies because the Labor Bureau does not include in its account unions that are inactive for any cause. For the same period, the Bureau reported 90 chambers of labor having 3,341 sections and 347,449 members. No statistics for agricultural unions were published. Data for the Catholic trade unions were obtained from 166 cities in Italy, the unions in these places having 58,127 members, and in 62 places in Sicily, these unions having 27,283 members, making the aggregate membership in Catholic trade unions 85,410.

The chambers of labor are similar in purpose and organization to the French labor exchanges. They are designed to protect the interests of workingmen in all the relations of life, serving as boards of conciliation, furthering labor legislation, acting as employment agencies, assisting in concluding labor contracts, organizing trade schools, establishing libraries, issuing trade publications, etc. — *Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, Berlin, Germany, June, 1905.*

Norway. Previous to the year 1884 there were only about 50 labor unions in Norway. In 1884 a strong organizing movement was begun, and in 1889 a national organization was formed in the wood working industry, the only general association before this time having been the Printers Central Union organized October 1, 1882. At the beginning of the year 1904 there were 15 national organizations representing 317 unions and having an aggregate membership of 15,222. The general unions, with one exception, maintain strike funds, and all issue trade journals. Outside the national organizations there are some independent local unions, the membership of these being unattainable. — *Arbeidsmarkedet for 1904, No. 2-3, Christiania, Norway, May 31, 1904.*

Statistics published in a special report on the activity of workmen's trade organizations from May 15, 1903, to July 1, 1905,* show that on the latter date there were about 350 trade unions with over 17,500 members; 300 of these unions with nearly 15,000 members were affiliated with the central organization, the strongest unions, from the standpoint of membership, being the metal workers (4,939 members), laborers (4,750 members), and printers (1,100).

Spain. The Labor Federation of Spain increased the number of unions from 69 in 1900 to 373 in 1905, the membership increasing in the five years from 14,737 to 16,935. The progress of the organization has been general in the whole of Spain. The trade branches which contributed the largest quota of members are: Building trades, 12,361; field laborers and gardeners, 6,046; woodworkers, 4,521; seamen, 4,091; printers, 3,718; metal workers, 3,459; victualers (all branches), 3,168; and miners, 307. — *Daily Trade and Consular Reports.*

Sweden. The development of trade unions in Sweden has been closely allied with the socialist movement. Previous to 1882, the only workingmen's organizations existing in Sweden, aside from mutual aid societies, were the friendly unions of artisans and mechanics established chiefly to further the educational interests of their members and provide common amusements.

Between 1875 and 1880 a number of unsuccessful strikes occurred and workingmen decided that more efficient organization was needed. As a result, the first trade union was organized in 1882. In

* *Beretning om arbeidernes faglige landsorganisationers virksomhed, May 15, 1903, to July 1, 1905, Christiania, 1905.*

1885, a considerable number of associations of this kind were formed; and about this time the influence of socialism began to be noticeable in the unions, especially in those at Stockholm. The unions grouped themselves in local labor exchanges, affiliated with the socialist party, and in national federations. In 1898, the national federations were, in turn, united in a central federation having its headquarters at Stockholm.

The unions pay into the federation to which they belong either a general entrance fee or a per capita assessment. The federation is managed by a committee which reports to the body at its annual convention. It distributes strike and unemployment benefits to unionists whom it has authorized to stop work, the money used for the purpose being either taken from the reserve fund or raised by special assessments.

On December 31, 1903, the central federation embraced 26 national federations representing 874 unions, with an aggregate membership of 47,122 persons. In addition to these unions there were, in Sweden, eight federations comprising 299 unions with 27,887 members and 100 independent unions having a total membership of 3,500, making an aggregate of 31,387 organized workingmen not represented in the central federation. Thus the total number of unions in Sweden was 1,273, their 78,509 members representing about 25 per cent of the working population; about 69 per cent of the unions, representing 60 per cent of the trade unionists, were affiliated with the central federation.

Certain groups of workingmen, refusing to support any religious or political interests, have remained outside the socialist party. Notable among these is the "Swedish Workingmen's Association," established in 1899, which concerns itself exclusively with economic and social questions. At the beginning of 1904, this association comprised 66 unions with 5,144 members, and had adherents in nearly every part of the country, although a very large number of its members are drawn from the iron workers of Stockholm. — *Bulletin de l'Office du Travail, Paris, France, December, 1904.*

WAGES PAID EMPLOYEES IN THE NAVY YARD AND PRIVATE ESTABLISHMENTS.

In 1904 the Bureau considered the wages then paid workmen in the Charlestown Navy Yard, reviewed the statutes governing the rates of pay of said government employees, the hours of labor, and the more important United States Navy Regulations.*

Some changes have been made since 1904 in the wages paid at the Charlestown Navy Yard, increases being made in some of the trades, which went into effect January 1, 1906.

As the law states that hours of labor worked and rates of wages paid in the navy yards shall conform, as nearly as is consistent with the public interest, with those of private establishments in the immediate vicinity of the respective yards, we have brought together, in the following table, the daily wages paid at the Charlestown Navy Yard, by classes, and the wages paid at representative private establishments in Boston. The data for the Navy Yard were compiled by the Naval Board on Wages.

* See Massachusetts Labor Bulletin No. 32, pages 215-219.

Wages Paid: Navy Yard and Private Establishments.

OCCUPATIONS.	NAVY YARD EMPLOYEES				Daily Wages Paid for the Same Labor by Private Establishments	
	Daily Wages: Classes					
	1	2	3	4		
<i>Schedule A.</i>						
Boy boiler scalers,	\$1.52	\$1.28	\$1.04	\$0.80	\$0.75; 0.51	
Helpers:						
Blacksmiths',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.00; 1.85; 1.83; 1.80; 1.75; 1.67; 1.63; 1.58; 1.53; 1.50; 1.44; 1.35	
Boatbuilders',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.25; 2.00	
Boilermakers',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.00	
Brass finishers',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$3.00; 2.75; 2.25; 2.00	
Chain makers',	2.32	2.00	1.76	1.52		
Coppersmiths',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.00	
Electricians',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$3.00; 2.67; 2.50; 2.00; 1.50; 1.34; 1.00	
Galvanizers',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$1.75; 1.65	
General,	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.00; 1.75; 1.50; 1.39; 1.21	
House carpenters',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.40; 2.00; 1.57; 1.50; 1.48; 1.35; 1.12	
Iron finishers',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$1.83; 1.67	
Joiners',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.25	
Machinists',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.25; 2.00; 1.87; 1.75; 1.66; 1.50; 1.35	
Molders',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.00; 1.83; 1.67; 1.50; 1.40	
Painters',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.50; 2.00; 1.44; 1.40; 1.35; 1.00	
Plumbers',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.22; 1.75; 1.63; 1.16; 1.00	
Riggers',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$3.00; 2.00; 1.50	
Ropemakers',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28		
Sawmill,	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.00	
Ship fitters',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28		
Shipwrights',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28		
Tinners',	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$1.50	
Hod carriers,	2.24	2.00	1.76	1.52	\$2.40; 2.38; 1.50	
Holders-on,	2.32	2.08	1.84	1.60	\$2.25; 2.10	
Janitors,	2.24	2.00	1.76	1.52	\$2.25; 2.00; 1.75	
Laborers, common	1.92	1.68	1.44	1.20	\$2.75; 2.50; 2.40; 2.25; 2.00; 1.83; 1.75; 1.67; 1.60; 1.50; 1.40; 1.35; 1.21	
Rivet heaters,	1.52	1.28	1.04	0.80	\$1.50	
Shipkeepers,	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00		
Stable keepers,	2.32	2.00	1.76	1.52	\$2.34; 1.45	
<i>Schedule B.</i>						
Blacksmiths,	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$4.50; 3.60; 3.50; 3.25; 3.00; 2.75; 2.70; 2.57; 2.50; 2.30; 1.98	
Blockmakers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$2.50; 2.25; 2.00; 1.25	
Boatbuilders,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.00; 2.75; 2.50; 2.00	
Boilermakers,	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$2.75; 2.50	
Boxmakers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32		
Cabinet makers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.78; 3.17; 3.06; 2.97; 2.63; 2.35; 2.16; 2.00	
Calkers and chippers, iron	2.80	2.56	2.32	2.00	\$3.00; 2.10; 1.63	
Calkers, wood	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$3.25; 2.50	
Carpenters (house),	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.28; 3.00; 2.50; 2.40; 2.28; 2.09; 1.87	
Carvers,	4.00	3.76	3.52	3.28	\$5.50; 4.00; 3.00	
Chainmakers,	4.00	3.52	3.28	3.04		
Coopers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.50*	
Coppersmiths,	3.36	3.12	2.88	2.64	\$3.00; 2.75; 2.25; 2.00	
Coremakers,	2.80	2.56	2.32	2.00	\$3.00; 2.75; 2.50; 2.33; 2.25; 1.87	
Die sinkers,	4.00	3.52	3.28	3.04	\$3.00	
Drillers,	2.56	2.32	2.00	1.76	\$2.00	
Electroplaters,	3.52	3.28	3.04	2.80	\$3.50; 3.25; 3.00	
Engine tenders,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.00		
Engine tenders, locomotive	3.52	3.28	3.04	2.80		
Engine tenders, stationary	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$4.17; 4.00; 3.84; 3.50; 3.00	
Fasteners,	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$3.25; 2.75	
Finishers, brass	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.75; 3.00; 2.52; 2.50; 2.33; 2.25; 1.80	
Finishers, iron	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.75; 3.00	
Firemen,	2.32	2.00	1.76	1.52	\$3.50; 2.92; 2.67; 2.50; 2.33; 2.25; 2.14; 2.10; 2.00; 1.80; 1.63	
Firemen, furnace	2.32	2.00	1.76	1.52	\$2.17; 2.00	
Flange turners,	3.76	3.52	3.28	3.04	\$3.15; 3.00	
Forgers, heavy	4.56	4.32	4.00	3.76	\$3.00; 2.79; 2.75	
Furnaceen,	2.00	1.76	1.52	1.28	\$2.75; 2.50; 2.12; 1.75; 1.67; 1.50	
Galvanizers,	2.80	2.56	2.32	2.00	\$2.50; 1.75; 1.50	
Gardeners,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32		
Gasfitters,	3.14	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.60; 3.50; 3.00	
Hammermen,	6.00	5.28	4.56	4.00	\$6.00; 4.00; 1.71; 1.67	
Hammer runners,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$2.67; 2.50	
Harness makers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32		
Heaters, furnace	4.00	4.00	3.52	3.04	\$3.00; 2.75	
Heaters, smiths'	2.32	2.00	1.76	1.52		
Horseshoers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32		
Hlostlers,	2.32	2.00	1.76	1.52	\$2.25; 2.00	
Joiners, house	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.28	
Joiners, ship	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$3.25; 3.00; 2.50	
Letterers and grainers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$2.52	
Machinists, all-round	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.00; 2.75; 2.50; 2.25; 2.10; 1.98; 1.75	
Machinists, electrical	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$3.60; 2.80; 1.87	
Machinists (floor or vise),	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$2.50; 2.33; 2.25; 2.00	

* This wage is for brewer's work; all other is piece work.

Wages Paid: Navy Yard and Private Establishments—Concluded.

OCCUPATIONS.	NAVY YARD EMPLOYEES				Daily Wages Paid for the Same Labor by Private Establishments	
	Daily Wages: Classes					
	1	2	3	4		
<i>Schedule B—Con.</i>						
Machinists, tool hand	\$3.04	\$2.80	\$2.56	\$2.32	\$3.57; 3.50; 3.17; 3.00; 2.75; 2.50; 2.25	
Masons, brick and stone	4.00	3.76	3.52	3.28	\$4.40	
Mechanics, electrical	3.52	3.28	3.04	2.80	\$3.60; 3.50; 3.00; 2.80; 2.50; 2.25; 2.00	
Melters,	2.80	2.56	2.32	2.00	\$3.00; 2.10	
Mill-men,	2.80	2.56	2.32	2.00	\$2.36; 2.31; 2.25; 2.07	
Millwrights,	4.00	3.28	3.04	2.80	\$2.75; 2.70; 2.33; 2.12; 2.07; 2.03; 1.87	
Model makers,	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$4.00; 3.25; 3.00; 2.75	
Molders, green sand (iron or brass)	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$4.20; 3.57; 3.30; 3.25; 3.00; 2.75; 2.08	
Molders, loan	3.52	3.28	3.04	2.80	\$3.57; 3.25; 2.75	
Oakum spinners,	2.56	2.32	2.00	1.76	\$2.50	
Ordnance men,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32		
Packers,	2.56	2.32	2.24	2.00	\$2.52; 2.43; 2.16; 2.15; 1.50	
Painters,	2.80	2.56	2.32	2.00	\$3.00; 2.80; 2.75; 2.39; 2.25; 2.00; 1.75	
Pattern makers,	3.52	3.28	3.04	2.80	\$4.00; 3.50; 3.27; 3.25; 3.00; 2.75; 2.33	
Pavers,	4.00	3.52	3.28	3.04	\$5.00; 4.50; 4.00	
Pilers, scrap	2.32	2.00	1.76	1.52		
Pipe fitters,	3.52	3.28	3.04	2.80	\$2.75; 2.52; 2.39; 2.25; 1.85	
Plasterers,	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$4.40; 4.00	
Plumbers (house),	3.76	3.52	3.04	2.80	\$4.00; 3.75; 3.50; 3.00	
Plumbers (ship),	3.52	3.28	3.04	2.80	\$3.50; 3.00	
Pressmen,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32		
Punchers and shearers,	2.56	2.32	2.00	1.76	\$3.15; 2.33; 1.87	
Reamers,	2.56	2.32	2.00	1.76		
Riggers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.00; 2.50	
Riveters,	2.80	2.56	2.32	2.00	\$2.75; 2.70; 2.62	
Rollers, iron,	4.56	3.76	3.28	3.04	\$4.50; 4.00	
Ropemakers, all-round	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32		
Sailmakers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.00; 2.50; 1.80	
Saw filers,	2.80	2.56	2.32	2.08	\$3.50; 3.00; 2.75	
Sawyers,	2.80	2.56	2.32	2.00	\$3.00; 2.75; 2.25	
Ship fitters,	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$2.88; 2.75	
Shipfitters,	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56		
Shipwrights,	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$3.25; 2.75; 2.50	
Slaters,	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$3.00	
Sparmakers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.00; 2.75; 2.50	
Stonecutters,	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$4.00; 2.52	
Tinniers,	3.28	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$3.00; 2.50; 2.48; 2.25; 2.16; 1.89	
Toolmakers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.08; 3.00; 2.33	
Tool sharpeners,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.00; 2.25	
Trackmen,	2.24	2.00	1.76	1.52		
Turners,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.33; 3.25; 2.75	
Upholsterers,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$2.48; 2.39; 2.09; 2.00	
Varnishers and polishers,	2.80	2.56	2.32	2.00	\$2.75; 2.52; 2.34; 2.25	
Wharf builders,	2.56	2.32	2.24	2.00		
Wheelwrights,	3.04	2.80	2.56	2.32	\$3.00; 2.50; 2.00	
Wiremen,	3.20	3.04	2.80	2.56	\$3.60; 3.50; 2.75; 2.33; 2.25; 2.00; 1.87	
Wireworkers,	2.80	2.56	2.32	2.00	\$3.25; 2.50; 2.00	

We shall not attempt a comparison of the daily wages paid employees at the Navy Yard and those in private establishments, for in collecting the data for outside establishments we found that the conditions attendant upon employment, even of a like nature, were so dissimilar as to render a direct comparison unfair, and therefore valueless. The eight-hour workday is in force for all employees in the Navy Yard, while the working-day for the outside firms from whom we obtained our information varied, although the majority of the workmen were under the nine-hour schedule. In the building trades, the men were all working but eight hours a day, and the shorter workday also prevailed for a comparatively few workmen in other branches of industry. The Navy Yard employees are granted leaves of absence (provisionally) to the amount of 15 working-days a year; giving vacations to like employees in private establishments is quite unusual. Even by citing these few differences one can readily see that the conditions are not comparable to the extent of supplying a basis for an exactly uniform wage scale.

CURRENT COMMENT ON LABOR QUESTIONS.

[*The Bureau does not necessarily indorse any of the views or opinions printed under this heading, its object being rather to present diverse views on labor questions, leaving the reader to draw his individual conclusions from the testimony or information supplied. The comments, as a rule, are presented in a condensed form; the titles of books, magazines, and newspapers, from which extracts are made, follow the articles, the date of publication, when known, being also given.*]

Immigration.

American Hebrew. — The calling of this Congress by the Civic Federation has had a good effect in that it has led to an intelligent interest and discussion, in the public press everywhere, of the subject. It has directed public attention to the subject as has never been the case before, and has served to show the average member of Congress that the public mind is awake to the importance of proper immigration and naturalization. The result will be that Congress will not dare to give them second place and let them rest in committee till the closing hours of the session and then pass an apology of a bill. The people of this country will hold their representatives to strict accountability for their conduct if they fail to give adequate attention. — *New York City, Dec. 15, 1905.*

New York Sun. — The Conference on Immigration which was in session in New York last week did not give direct expression to the feeling of race prejudice, but actually its assembling was due to the change in the races of immigrants which began to show itself markedly about 15 years ago. Before that period the aliens coming to us were almost wholly from northern and western Europe, chiefly Irish and Germans, with a very considerable part also from Scandinavia. Since then the great preponderance has come from eastern and southern Europe, principally Italians and Jews. It is this change that has provoked the discussion of which the conference was the fruit. This transformation as compared with the immigration previous to 1890 is likely to continue and to increase in importance if it is not checked by Federal legislation. . . . After all, what did the conference on the subject come to? No agreement on any plan of restriction was reached and no evidence of the necessity for any such measure of protection was produced. The fears of the new immigration expressed were no greater than those urged against the alien stream which came over between 1810 and 1860. That earlier alarm has not been justified in our experience since that time, and the present misgivings are likely to be made to seem no less imaginary 50 years hence. As President Elliot, of Harvard, said at the conference on Thursday, we have need yet of all the labor and sinew we can get to develop our resources. Moreover, race prejudice is something of an absurdity in a country of which the population is already the most mixed in race composition of any ever before gathered together in the history of the world. — *December, 1905.*

Nicholas Altenikoff. — Naturally, if we could assume the possibility of the emigration of all the six millions of Jews from Russia, it would solve the problem. Perhaps, unfortunately for the Jews, but certainly fortunately for Russia, for the Russian nation, for the Russian people, such emigration *en masse* is a matter of absolute physical and psychological impossibility. With the greatest efforts, concerted in spirit and in action, of the representatives of American Jewry of all shades and denominations, we have succeeded in raising a fund of \$1,000,000 for the relief of over 100,000 sufferers in dire distress, who have been left homeless and shelterless. With the other \$1,000,000 raised in Europe, this would give a per capita of \$20 to each person in distress. How ridiculously, nay, painfully inadequate, such relief is, is self-evident. Will a \$20 per capita relief tend to rehabilitate or even in the slightest way relieve the distress of the sufferers? . . . Emigration *en masse* of the Russian Jew is not conceivable, and the solution of the Jewish problem in Russia by means of emigration is therefore a chimera. By this, however, I do not mean to say that we shall not find 1,000,000 Jews who, weary of their heavy burden of misery and persecution, would be ready, willing, nay, but too happy, to be transported to any land where they could start life anew, where they would find a refuge, a welcome haven of rest; but where is that land, and where are the means of such transportation and the brotherly hand of human aid in the sorrowful path of the "Wandering Jew?" — *American Hebrew, Jan. 5, 1906.*

Labor Clarion. — If we adopt and enforce the "non-employment and non-intercourse" method of dealing with the "little brown men," we will soon see them "striking tents" and leaving for the Middle West and the Atlantic States, where it is safe to say they will not be very warmly welcomed, no matter how much our New England brethren may love and admire them at a distance of 3,000 miles. — *San Francisco, Cal., Dec. 15, 1905.*

The idea has been too long general in San Francisco that the Japanese coming here are of the laboring class. It is time that our minds were divested of that error. During the past year there were 280 professional men among them, 44 of whom were actors, 36 clergymen, 20 engineers (civil), 74 officials, 21 doctors, 20 sculptors, and 37 teachers. There were also 358 skilled laborers such as — 33 carpenters, 84 clerks, 57 seamen, 36 sailors, 25 wood-

workers and so on. Among the miscellaneous occupations we find 14 bankers, 380 farmers (not laborers), 60 hotel keepers, 28 manufacturers, 777 merchants and retailers, and 5,883 farm laborers, in fact every occupation has its representatives, but in smaller numbers than those mentioned. The Coreans are laborers and nothing more. . . . Among the Japanese coming during 1905 there were 4,287 illiterates—not able to read or write—and among the Coreans, 1,925. Of the Japanese 1,515 had been in the United States before, so had 18 of the Coreans.

—Dec. 29, 1905.

Coast Seamen's Journal.—Something, however, can and should be done. A head-tax, say of \$30 or \$40, would act as a salutary check, and would be quite in accordance with our national protectionist policy. Then, too, the Government should have competent inspectors placed at the principal distributing points of emigrants in Europe to watch that no persons unable to meet the requirements of our immigration laws would be shipped to this country. Finally, the Government should establish some sort of system for distributing the newly-arrived immigrants where they would be most needed. . . . Under our present immigration policy—or lack of policy rather—our already over-congested cities are being still more congested, while the parts of the country which could absorb the major portion of the flood of immigration with great advantage to themselves are in many instances actually receding in point of population. It will be seen, therefore, that an intelligent distribution of the immigrants upon their arrival here would do a great deal in the way of solving some of the difficulties connected with our immigration problem.

The most effective way to show the Japanese, and incidentally our own people who know nothing of the conditions existing on this Coast, that no Asiatic labor is wanted is to begin a strict exclusion policy at home. If the Japs are unable to find employment in Western cities they may possibly travel eastward and thus help to arouse that healthy sentiment in favor of exclusion which is so sadly lacking at present. . . . Let us all lend a hand in this fight for preserving the purity of our race and thereby maintain and improve our superior standard of living. An ounce of practice is worth more than a pound of protest, therefore let us begin by excluding the Jap at home and in our immediate vicinity and thereby hasten the exclusion from all America.—*San Francisco, Cal., Dec. 20, 1905.*

The Immigration Conference of the National Civic Federation has met and adjourned, and according to local press dispatches two delegates to the conference, both editors—one white and one yellow—discussed the problem of Mongolian immigration. It appears that the yellow editor was the favorite, as he expressed the views and sentiments of the vast majority of that plutocratic gathering.

The sum total of the sentiments expressed at the Civic Federation Conference was undoubtedly favorable toward the Chinese, and admitting that fact we may as well confess that there can be no hope for the passage of the Japanese and Corean bill at this session of Congress and possibly not for many sessions to come.

The people of the Pacific Coast States should be acquainted with the aforesaid facts, not in order to dishearten them, but to urge upon them the advisability of taking individual action. It is estimated that from twelve to fifteen thousand Japan-

ese have landed in Pacific Coast ports during the past year. During that time Japan was engaged in the greatest war of modern times. The war is over, fully three-quarters of a million of soldiers have returned to Japan and have been discharged or will be discharged within a short time, and a great many thousands will find themselves among the unemployed. Many of the steamers that were used as transports during the war have been put in the Trans-Pacific trade, carrying passengers and merchandise. From these facts we may conclude that Japanese emigration will be doubled and possibly trebled in this year. The future Japanese immigrants to this country will be veteran soldiers. And if it takes as long to pass a Japanese exclusion law as it did to pass the law excluding Chinese, we will have an army of ex-Japanese soldiers in the Pacific States.

Japanese do not come to the United States as colonists. They do not cultivate wild and unclaimed lands. They come here to be employed at some work that formerly was done by some one else. They are coming over here to be employed. If we do not employ them, they will not come, and if they did come and we did not employ them, they would be only too glad to go back again. The blame is at the door of the employers. As the employer, we will immediately recognize the man who employs labor, but the fact of the matter is, that the one who purchases for self or family consumption is the real employer. If he did not purchase goods made by Asiatics, the factory would not turn a wheel. . . . We can exclude all Asiatics without the Act of Congress by simply refusing to patronize those who employ and insist in employing them. Our most effective weapon in this struggle is the Union Label. That emblem of fair play is not, will not, and can not be found upon any Asiatic product.—*Jan. 3, 1906.*

Organized Labor.—The laws now existing for the exclusion of undesirable immigrants should be strengthened. Adequate means should be adopted, enforced by sufficient penalties, to compel steamship companies engaged in the passenger business to observe in good faith the law which forbids them to encourage or solicit immigration to the United States. Moreover, there should be a sharp limitation imposed upon all vessels coming to our ports as to the number of immigrants in ratio to the tonnage which each vessel can carry. This ratio should be high enough to insure the coming hither of as good a class of aliens as possible. Provision should be made for the surer punishment of those who induce aliens to come to this country under promise or assurance of employment. It should be made possible to inflict a sufficiently heavy penalty on any employer violating this law to deter him from taking the risk. It seems to me wise that there should be an international conference held to deal with this question of immigration, which has more than a merely national significance. Such a conference could, among other things, enter at length into the methods for securing a thorough inspection of would-be immigrants at the ports from which they desire to embark before permitting them to embark. . . .

From all sides we hear the assertion that Japanese laborers are an absolute necessity to the prosperity of our orchardists, vineyardists, hop and berry-growers, that without them the crops would rot in the field, owing to the inability of the rancher to obtain suitable help during the harvesting of his crops.—*San Francisco, Cal., Dec. 9, 1905.*

One of the most plausible arguments made by the pro-Japanese is that there is not sufficient white labor in California to take care of the crops. This is a misstatement of fact, and were it not for the persistence with which the Japanese boss assails the employers of labor, the white man who is waiting the opportunity to work would be called upon to do so. It is well known that there are thousands of people, young and old, who would gladly perform the work now in the hands of the Jap and the Chink if the opportunity was afforded them. There are thousands more people in the Eastern States who are eager to migrate to California if they were assured that they would not have to compete with Mongolians. Can we blame them? . . .

We had the honor of attending the great anti-Chinese convention of some 20 years ago, held in Sacramento — a convention that was attended by thousands of men from all parts of the State — some for and some against exclusion, and it was thought then that the question was satisfactorily settled for all time; but to-day, so far as "unorganized" labor is concerned, the conditions throughout the State are worse than ever.

We must get to work and interest our friends in the other States. Each of us, no doubt, has some relative in the East, West, or South, whom we can educate — let us do so. Let us awaken the State from Oregon to the Mexican border. Let us awaken the Pacific Coast States. This little movement in San Francisco is but the precursor of the storm which must be aroused before Japanese exclusion will become an accomplished fact. — *Dec. 30, 1905.*

The Labor World. — After an exhaustive and able discussion on the "Chinese Immigration" question recently, the Civic Federation Conference at New York passed the following resolution: *Resolved*, That our laws and treaties should be so framed and administered as to carefully except Chinese students, business men, and professional men of all kinds, not only merchants, but bankers, doctors, manufacturers, professors and travelers, from the enforcement of the exclusion law.

It is not likely that the foregoing resolution will be satisfactory to the vast majority of organized labor. The direct and most influential representatives of labor at the convention just named contended against any modification of the Chinese exclusion law. Mr. McArthur of the International Seamen's union, whose headquarters are at San Francisco, voiced the sentiments of the trade unionists of the far West when he opposed the resolution we have just quoted. President Gompers argued strongly against any law that would relax the present rigidity of the exclusion law.

It has often been remarked that there is "in every law that is passed a hole big enough for a team of horses and a wagon to pass through." It is apparent that a law based upon the foregoing resolution will afford latitude enough for the importation of shiploads of Chinese. There would have to be a police surveillance almost sufficient to place a personal watch on every Chinaman that was permitted to land in the country. Every device that could be invented by the Chinese would be put into operation to defeat the object of the law by fraudulently making laborers represent persons of a higher class. In short, a law such as the foregoing resolution suggests would permit of a "loop-hole" that American wage-workers would not be likely to support. — *Pittsburg, Pa., Dec. 28, 1905.*

The *Labor World* has constantly pointed out that there is one phase of this question regarding

which there can be no dispute, viz., the distribution of the immigrants who land in this country. Thousands who come here proceed to districts and localities where labor of all kinds is congested. There is room for many more thousands of laborers in the United States yet, but this room is where capital and sturdy men are needed. When healthy, vigorous, and energetic labor comes to this country with more or less capital, it is blessing, and it is not an evil if it comes unaccompanied by capital if it is directed to places where such labor is needed. This is the position the *Labor World* has steadfastly held and, at the same time, it believes that a fair and useful restriction can be enforced for some time to come. — *Jan. 11, 1906.*

The Labor Leader. — Hon. E. A. Hayes, Congressman of the Fifth District, California, in an interview regarding the Japanese, said:

"My position is so well known to be uncompromising in opposition to the admission of Asiatic labor to this country, and during the last political campaign I so fully expressed my views upon this subject to the people of San Francisco, that I doubt if anything I might say would prove interesting. However, in a matter of such great moment, the people cannot be too fully advised of the facts. Casting aside all other conditions, it is neither just nor fair to our American workingmen, for anybody's true interest, that American labor should be obliged to compete against the kind of labor represented by Mongolians now upon this coast. Where intelligence, efficiency, and energy are the principal elements of the competition, our American workingman can compete with anybody. But when there is no family responsibility resting upon the foreign laborer, then the competition of the foreigner is sure to take from our native workers their very means of subsistence by a species of labor whose domestic life and requirements reduce the competition from one of intelligence and productive capacity to one of physical endurance. When he understands the situation, no just or human man will ask that free men like our American workingmen be obliged to compete with such labor. . . .

"Union labor working through their national organizations can be very effective, but they should not confine themselves to arguments that appeal exclusively to laboring men. They should put their demand upon broader grounds. Our Southern brothers ought to respond at once to an appeal to save us on this coast from another race issue like the one they are now struggling with, and what father from the Atlantic Coast or in the Mississippi Valley, when he understands the question, will want us forced to bring up our children in the atmosphere of moral leprosy that the introduction among us of the lower class of Asiatics surely brings?" — *Baltimore, Md., Dec. 30, 1905.*

The Labor News. — At a meeting of the Japanese Exclusion League, held in San Francisco during the summer of 1905, State Senator E. I. Wolfe made the following remarks:

"This convention represents no particular creed nor class, nor locality. It stands for the people of the whole country. God never made this land for the use of the Japanese. Here should be the home of the white people, a land of public schools and domestic happiness, not a place for miserable coolies and the moral infamies of the Mongolians who are coming here to-day. . . . Some say that the Japanese are only to be feared as laborers, but I hold in my hand the card of a Japanese architect

who bids for business as a contractor and builder. Soon the Orientals will be opening machine shops in our midst. So let us organize this opposition; let us go with our words of warning from one end of the State to the other. Then the time will not be far distant when the Japanese will cease to come here and American wages will be secure for the American workingman."

Dr. Carl Saalfeld submitted plans for a house to the Japanese architect and contractors with the following result: "I found that the Japanese have entered into all the 34 trades connected with or represented in the building of a modern American house. I had plans for a house I contemplated building and on which I had received bids from American contractors. From curiosity I submitted plans to the Japanese, and found that they would build the house for \$2,000 less than the lowest bid from an American. That bid was \$5,800 and the Japanese offered to build it for \$3,800. The Japs would do everything from the excavating to the plumbing and gas-fitting, plastering and painting, turning over the keys to the finished house. Thinking there had been some mistake, I went over the plans with them, even to the tile-laying, but they stood by their figures. They pay their carpenters \$1.50 a day and their laborers about 60 per cent less than a white man receives. The item for common labor the American contractor had figured at \$700; the Japanese figured it at \$250. Is it not time to call a halt?" — *Colorado Springs, Col., Dec. 14, 1905.*

St. Joseph Union. — Are there not, then, problems enough without going into the fields and the highways of the world and compelling others to come in? Surely America is already busy enough washing, teaching, drilling, and coercing the neglected children of humanity. The work that she has undertaken she will surely do. Of that there can be no question whatever. The negro problem will be solved, and the problems of European immigration are none the less hopeful because they are unsavory and sometimes unspeakable. The individual Slav and Croat and Pole may be a dreary failure, but his children will be as clay in the hands of the potter, and one generation will wipe away the squalor, and freedom will banish even the inherited memories of oppression. But what shall we do with the Asiatic? What can we do with him? Of what avail to enumerate his virtues, if the stubborn fact remains that he will not mix or merge, and that all the documents in the world will not make of him an American citizen? The nations of Asia are nations apart, nor do they themselves wish to be anything else. The Asiatic can never be other than an Asiatic, however much he may imitate the dress of the white man, learn his language, and spend his wages for him. Nor will he ever have the slightest concern with our laws except to evade them, nor with our government except to cajole it and to deceive it. — *St. Joseph, Mo., Jan. 5, 1906.*

Railroad Trainmen's Journal. — There is a certainty that Congress will be asked to abrogate the present Exclusion Act. Unless the labor organizations protest vigorously it will be done, and to the extent that practically every Chinaman and his family will be admitted if he can secure the proper credentials in his own country, and the Chinese companies can be trusted to attend to that matter. There will be nothing done to restrict immigration as it applies to other countries, for the "statesmen" are afraid of the foreign vote and will not take steps to provoke its anger. The truth of the immigration

question is that we are to-day admitting thousands of people who are in no wise superior to the Chinaman except in what may be allowed because they have accepted some form of orthodox religion. Their methods of living, their moral standards and mental attributes are not equal to the majority of Chinamen who have come to this country. And this need not be taken as a defence of the Chinamen, for it is intended rather to demonstrate the kind of immigrants to whom Mr. Carnegie would like to offer premiums to come to America if he owned all of it.

It seems unnecessary to call attention to the need for immediate action on the immigration question. Congress is afraid, unless it can have its fears allayed by support of the people who ought to realize the need for restricted immigration of all kinds. The public, therefore, must assure Congress of what it wants.

Under the surface of the arguments in favor of immigration reforms there is grave danger that, instead of imposing greater restrictions, the entire question of passing on the qualifications of immigrants will be left to the governments of the countries from which the immigrant comes to this country. — *Cleveland, Ohio, January, 1906.*

It is asserted daily and emphatically that the South wants immigrants. If what we have learned of labor conditions in the South is good evidence, the same reasons are back of the demand as are to be found back of every other demand, which always is cheaper labor and more of it than there is work.

The need for immigrants in agriculture in the South is set forth every day, and there have been very many persons who have endeavored to direct the millions of newcomers to our thinly inhabited territory, but with indifferent success. What has been done in the way of sending foreigners to new and sparsely populated districts has not brought good results. Instead of taking up the work nearest at hand they have either entered trade in a small way or drifted back to the slums of the cities from whence they came.

The plans thus far attempted have been too much in the order of rapid transit changes that are like giving the newly freed slave all the rights of citizenship. A good citizen cannot be made over night from nothing, nor can a man or woman used to the lowest of irresponsible conditions be created into self-supporting, independent landowners by the simple process of shipping them into the country to become farmers without money to buy land, and without stock and tools to work the land.

Investigation will reveal the fact that it is not landowners that are sought, but rather farm laborers, to displace that labor now thought to be too costly, and which it is hoped to do away with in favor of something cheaper.

There is no general demand from the Southern people for increased immigration. Just why the working people of the Southern States should desire to compete with cheaper labor than Negro labor now is would be hard to explain. The entire demand comes from transportation companies, mill owners, and capitalists who seek the increased transportation business, cheaper labor, and, at the same time, use the supposed demand to prevent effective legislation in defence of labor conditions. — *February, 1906.*

Herbert N. Casson. — Reasons for Mongolian exclusion:

They do not come here to be American citizens, but to form Chinese colonies.

They do not come to America to escape from oppressive governments, but to make money and go back again.

They refuse to adopt American customs or live up to the American standard of morality.

Repeated failures have proved that it is impossible to teach the Chinese to obey sanitary regulations.

It is impossible to admit the Chinaman and keep out the opium joint. This reason alone would be sufficient to justify exclusion.

The Chinaman lowers the standard of wages and of living in every trade he enters. — *Trades Union News, Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 14, 1905.*

National Labor Tribune. — The Aliens Act, passed at the last session of Parliament, became effective on Monday, January 1, 1906. The first effect of the new law was that the immigration officers refused to permit the landing of 24 immigrants from Germany. The new law prohibits immigrants from landing in Great Britain except at ports where an immigration officer is stationed, and only with his consent and after a medical examination. Immigrants may be refused permission to land if unable to show that they are in a position to obtain means to maintain themselves decently; if insane; if on account of disease or other causes they are likely to become a charge to the taxpayers; if they have been sentenced abroad for an extraditable crime not of a political nature, or if they have previously been expelled from Great Britain.

The bill, however, provides that an alien shall not be refused permission to land on account of want of means if able to prove that he or she is seeking admission to Great Britain solely to avoid prosecution for political offences. — *Pittsburg, Pa., Jan. 4, 1906.*

Boston Evening Record. — Says Mr. Carnegie: "If I owned America I would give a premium to every man who could save enough money to come here." Mr. Carnegie means well. He would bid for the thrifty immigrant; he knows well indeed what the settling of the able, saving worker from other shores has done for this country. But the United States has passed the time when it needs to bid. There is too much bidding, coaxing, by the steamship companies which want the fares. The valuable immigrants will come anyway, and those who are coming for the premiums are of the wrong sort. Our business is to keep them out, and the President has suggested several ways that should be effective — *Dec. 8, 1905.*

Boston Post. — Editorially, the Sydney (Australia) Morning Herald says: White immigration to Australia has now practically ceased. In 10 years we have lost 1,845 by excess of departures over arrivals. If England cannot send healthy young men of the right sort, Australia must turn her eyes toward Poland, Scandinavia, and Hungary; and, like America, attract healthy men of any European nation to come over and help us to take effective possession of our continent. — *Nov. 26, 1905.*

The most important features of the deliberations of this conference relate to the sifting of immigrants in order that this country may get the best, the restraint of artificially stimulated immigration, and the distribution of those who arrive here among the sections of the country where they are needed and where they can find the best conditions of living. . . . But these are generalizations. If

the wise men at the New York conference can furnish specifications of the plan to bring about these results, they will be a great help to the people at Washington. — *Dec. 8, 1905.*

Knowing the intense interest in the immigration question felt by all true friends of labor, I would like to suggest the advisability of bringing to the front the proposition of letting each State settle this question on the principle of local option; that is, each State have its own laws as to allowing or prohibiting immigration. — *Communication from a Reader, Dec. 28, 1905.*

Boston Traveler. — There are ample laws on the books now to do all that is desired, which is to keep out the paupers, criminals, the mentally and morally unfit, and to let all the rest in. The immigration officers are like all the rest of the world. Good officials. Little men wobbling about in big places, some hard-hearted and cruel and others tender-hearted and kind. All in all, they can do the work if they are properly supported and watched. The failure of the immigration officers to give the present law its best enforcement is all a matter of politics. . . . Cut out politics, which to-day are more in evidence than they ever were in the immigration service, make the officials enforce the law, which is another way of saying that the immigrant with a pull must not be allowed to land while a more worthy immigrant without a pull is excluded and sent back to the country whence he came, and the immigration problem will settle itself. — *Dec. 8, 1905.*

For 40 years efforts have been made to settle the immigration question by taking the immigrants away from the congested localities in the great cities and distributing them through the agricultural sections of the country, and to those places where manufacturing enterprises require labor of this sort, but nothing in the way of legislative action ever had any influence on this question of distribution, and probably never will. . . . Costly experience has shown that efforts to colonize always fail, because the immigrants refuse to stay put. . . . The Italians who have gone voluntarily into the South are helping to revolutionize industry in that section. They have done this alone and unaided, although the expensive experiments in Arkansas and Georgia, where everything was provided beforehand and life was made easy for them, were dismal failures. — *Jan. 26, 1906.*

Boston Globe. — The Catholic bishops of Ireland are making another attempt to stem the tide of Irish emigration. A circular signed by Cardinal Logue and Bishop Sheehan of the diocese of Waterford has been ordered to be read in the churches throughout Ireland, warning the younger generation of the evils of emigration, appealing to the people not to be allured by the enticements held forth in letters from the United States, and especially dilating on the dangers that beset the path of girl emigrants. — *Dec. 7, 1905.*

The most serious phase of the problem seems to be the distribution of the new arrivals. . . . The United States has many sparsely settled states where new arrivals could go and build up communities and, at the same time, create wealth for themselves without disturbing crowded established centres of labor. Aliens are wanted in the West and South. Aliens naturally desire to remain with their friends, but where they are arriving to the number of 1,026,000 — as was the case last year — it is imperative that the distribution question, which is the paramount one in the whole problem, should

receive prompt attention by the Federal or State governments in order that there may be no concentration of population of such proportion as to paralyze the industries of the country. Agriculture, mining, lumbering, cotton mills, railroading and other distinctive American industries far from cities are still open to immigrants, and they should not be ignored by them. Former immigrants laid the foundations of fortunes in these pursuits.—*Dec. 9, 1905.*

Representatives from all the New England States met at Young's Hotel yesterday and organized the New England Association for the Restriction of Immigration. The purpose of the league is to minimize certain alleged objectionable features of the present immigration system. . . . The first convention will be held at Mechanics Building the third Wednesday of June, 1906.—*Dec. 23, 1905.*

At the recent meeting of the National Civic Federation, the Commissioner of Immigration, Mr. Frank P. Sargent, presented some interesting figures of the occupations and possessions of the more than a million immigrants of the year. Agriculturists, farm laborers, and skilled mechanics among these numbered nearly 343,000, servants numbered 125,000, while of men, women, and children without occupations there were about 232,000. Still more interesting are the figures which show that these million newcomers brought into the country more than \$25,000,000, an average of \$25 per capita. The total money of the world of all kinds is less than \$10 for each inhabitant, but in this country it is \$31.41. Of course, what the immigrants brought in represented in a vast number of cases what they could borrow of friends and relatives in their own countries. It is quite truly charged that these immigrants, in redeeming the obligations which they incurred in their own countries to enable them to reach America, send back much of the money that they earn for a considerable period. It ought to be remembered, however, that this money which they send back is what they have scraped together out of their own small wages, and that they do not, because they cannot, send back the wealth that their industry and energy convert out of the natural resources of their adopted country. That is here to stay.—*Feb. 14, 1906.*

Boston Transcript.—Under a broad policy the Italian Government is making a systematic effort to exert a careful supervision over the distribution of its emigrants to the United States, with the ultimate object of making them better citizens here and more wealth-producing, so that they may add to the trade and increase the prosperity of the mother country. To carry out the practical end of this scheme, the initiatory steps of which have already been taken, Adolph Rossi, special representative of the Italian Government, who has just come from Rome, together with Bishop Broderick of the Catholic Church, called on the President and also conferred with the officials of the Department of Commerce and Labor.

In outlining the plans of the Italian Government, Signor Rossi said: "We shall establish a labor bureau for Italian immigrants in New York, under the direction of the Italian Agricultural Association. Those who have done farming work all their lives will be distributed in the rural districts of America, particularly in truck gardening in the lower Mississippi Valley. Those who have been engaged in other lines of work will have employment found for them in other cities. A systematic

effort will be made to overcome the padrone system at present being worked to the detriment of the Italians as they arrive at New York. . . . The Southern railroads, I have noticed, have been advertising extensively and offering special inducements to Italians to become land proprietors. This is just what we do not want. Italians prefer to work as laborers and to learn the agricultural methods in this country before they start out as individual proprietors. They do not waste their money, and in three or four years are usually able to buy a small place, which they gradually enlarge. . . . Italy now has a population of 34,000,000, and as it is increasing by half a million every year the government is willing to further immigration that will be beneficial to the people who emigrate and to the government itself."—*Nov. 18, 1905.*

The Italian immigrant is sober, hard-working, and thrifty at home. He is by nature an agriculturist, a tiller of the soil. He is at his best when he gets a chance to make a living from the land. The loneliness of American farm life appalls the Italian, who is gregarious, loving the company of his kind. . . . The South, we have no hesitancy in saying, will make a great mistake if it rejects the Italian, or hampers him. Let the South accept him, not, however, to huddle him into some city slum, but to give him an opportunity to make two blades of grass grow where only one grew before.—*Nov. 28, 1905.*

We certainly should not object to receive diamonds in the rough, rather than inferior gems that have gone through certain stages of the polishing process. We would not shut the doors to any in good physical and mental health and possessing good characters and temperamental tendencies. The late President Harrison said: "Our naturalization laws should be amended so as to make the inquiry into the character and good disposition of persons applying for citizenship more careful and searching. . . . We should not cease to be hospitable to immigration, but we should cease to be careless as to the character of it." The laws have been somewhat amended and made more rigid since this was spoken, but there is evidently yet room for improvement.—*Dec. 14, 1905.*

New Haven Register.—It is the task of all Americans who desire to convert the descendants of the immigrants into material for good citizenship to give all the aid in their power to the efforts to elevate them. In the majority of cases they are indissolubly wedded to the habits that they have formed in their old homes. It is probable that a few of them understand the altered conditions in which they are now living, and that they encourage their boys and girls to seek for mental and physical improvement, but they are wofully in the minority. Still they are the leaven in the lump. Those who have come from Europe with the correct impression that there is something better in America than the chances to earn a livelihood are the ones who can be depended upon to stir the masses of aliens to nobler endeavor.

The achievement set before American patriots is to take hold of the children of the immigrants and make real Americans of them. It can only be accomplished by individual and organized effort. It is worth all that it may cost in the expenditure of money and personal force. Even if Congress should restrict immigration to our shores, the foreign element of the population is now so immense that the problem of transporting its younger growth into Americanism looms up gigantic. It is a grave

issue of the time, and upon its adjustment hangs the material welfare of the nation. — *January, 1906.*

Boston Herald. — The problem of regulation or restriction is an exceedingly perplexing one. The heroic suggestion that was made at the annual meeting of the Federation of Labor, that all immigration be interdicted for 10 years, has in it more merit than some people are willing to admit. It would certainly give us an opportunity to assimilate the great alien mass that we have already admitted, and assimilation is by no means a disadvantage. But while we are willing to admit the theoretic advantage of this form of treatment, it would be idle to ignore the fact that the remedy is altogether too drastic to make probable its practical application. Many of the representatives of organized labor would find, when it was seriously proposed to apply a rule of this kind, that it struck severely at friends and relatives of theirs, and hence was in their opinion altogether unjust in its application. — *Nor. 27, 1905.*

The intercourse between Canada and the United States at quite a number of points along our border is for purposes of passenger travel almost as intimate as between New York and Massachusetts. . . . In what way would it be possible to determine whether a person coming across the line was or was not a Canadian? Suppose an immigrant from England or Ireland, after passing six or eight years in the Province of Ontario, proposed to come to the United States and settle here. What means would our immigrant inspectors have of determining whether he was or was not a native of Canada or of determining whether he was coming on a visit or for a permanent stay? — *Dec. 9, 1905.*

Commissioner-General Sargent of the Bureau of Immigration, in his annual report to Congress, refers to the magnitude and the gravity of the problems presented by the growth of the alien population of the United States. "These problems," he declares, "loom so largely in the prospect of our country that it may be said, without giving just cause to charge exaggeration, that all other questions of public economy, relating to things rather than to human beings, shrink into comparative insignificance." The President truly says: "We cannot have too much immigration of the right sort, and we should have none whatever of the wrong sort." President Eliot says: "We need in this country all the sound brain and brawn we can import for the development of our industries." The Rev. Dr. Hillis declares: "So far from 1,000,000 immigrants over-stocking the country, the country is now in need of 5,000,000 workmen — the interior States, the Rocky Mountain States, and especially the States of the Pacific Coast, are like a dry and thirsty land." If Dr. Hillis should go as a laborer to these lands, looking for a job, he might change his opinion. But even he does not give a solution to the other problem — how to secure a more even distribution of the immigrants. — *Dec. 13, 1905.*

More than a million people classed as immigrants came to the United States in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1905. It would be interesting to know how many of this number will be found here at the close of the year 1907. If one may judge from the experiences of our great steamship lines, the number leaving the United States each year for Europe must foot up to hundreds of thousands. There are Italians who, in the last 10 years, have made the trip across the Atlantic five times or more — that is, they have been twice home during that term of years. . . . Have these versatile workers been in-

cluded three times as immigrants, and has no credit been made of the fact of their leaving this country for a return to their native land? . . . It is not improbable that there are in this country at the present time a million or more people of foreign birth who do not intend to permanently reside here, but who, on the contrary, are looking forward to the gaining of a certain amount of wealth which will enable them to go back and live in more comfortable conditions in the home of their childhood. These are doubtless giving to this country, in work that they do, the full value of the money that they earn and save. But, judged of from a social, and perhaps a political, point of view, they occupy a somewhat different position from those who come to the United States with the fixed determination of making their permanent homes in this country. — *Dec. 14, 1905.*

No matter how careful the inspection is on this side, it cannot possibly be so effective as a preliminary examination would be at the point of departure, where the immigrant could be turned back, thus weeding out a portion at least of the undesirable persons who wish to get into America, and making the work at Ellis Island, Boston, Baltimore, San Francisco, and the other cities where the bulk of the immigration army enters much less difficult for all concerned. — *Dec. 19, 1905.*

When the Canadian minister of railroads was recently in Boston he said that Canada had arrived at a point in its industrial development when it could afford to be just as particular as the United States in regard to the enforcement of its immigration laws, and that, as a matter of fact, there was entire harmony of interests between the immigration authorities of the two countries in the enforcement of these statutes. The intercourse between the United States and Canada at scores of different points along our border is about as close and familiar as between Massachusetts and New Hampshire or New York and Pennsylvania.

It is this freedom of intercourse which has led, in spite of vexatious tariff restrictions along the border line, to the enormous sale of American products to the people of the Dominion, and any needless limitation upon this easy incoming and outgoing would cut severely and needlessly into well-established trade arrangements. — *Dec. 21, 1905.*

Organized labor has apparently taken upon itself the work of agitating prohibition, or partial prohibition, upon immigration. Pages of the *Congressional Record* are filled with the list of local trades unions that have petitioned for the passage of laws restricting immigration. It is a curiously significant fact that fully nine-tenths of these petitioners are either immigrants themselves or the children of parents who were immigrants. If the government of the United States had adopted two generations ago the restrictive immigration laws that these petitioners are desiring to have imposed, the probability is that the great majority of these petitioners would not now be living in this country, if, indeed, they had an actual existence anywhere. Are the conditions as we find them now so materially different from what they were six or seven decades ago that it is absolutely necessary for the safety of our national institutions to adopt these rigid restrictions? The scale of living for wage-earners as well as others is far higher now in the United States than it was half or three-quarters of a century ago. The wages received are higher now than they were then for all classes of work.

What is it, then, that the incoming tide of immigration has done which threatens this dire calamity that restriction is needed to prevent? — *Dec. 23, 1905.*

Not Southerners alone, but many intelligent and keen-eyed visitors to that section of our country, are turning the old advice of Horace Greeley in this fashion: "Go South, young man." With the better climate, great and varied natural resources, sparser population and cheap land, it has been, and is, a puzzle why more foreign immigrants and more of the "movers-on" from the crowded portions of the East and middle West do not "go South." . . . That there is room enough for all comers is shown by the *Florida Times-Union* in its striking grouping of comparisons. For example: "If every man, woman, and child in Italy should drop down in Texas to-morrow, that State would still need the entire population of France to give it as many people to the square mile as Italy now has;" or "the population of England, Wales, Ireland, and Scotland could move in a body into Louisiana, Arkansas, Indian Territory, and Oklahoma, and when it had settled there the population of Holland and Belgium would be needed to give those States a density of population equal to that of the United Kingdom." And still again: "Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Kentucky could find room for all the people of the German empire without being any more crowded than Germany is now." Finally, "the South has room for about 130,000,000 people from Europe, and would then be not much more than half as thickly settled as Massachusetts is now." So that the invitation to "come South" is really hospitable. — *Jan. 4, 1906.*

New York Times. — When England is doing its best to export its unemployed to its unpopulated colonies it manifestly cannot in justice to itself welcome many more of the helpless class. With us the case is different. We have the land and we need the men, the labor unions to the contrary notwithstanding. The magnificent figures of agricultural prosperity which is buoying our security markets would never have been possible without the recruits whom we have welcomed and assimilated. Especially there is sympathy rather than prejudice against the refugees to whom England is under compulsion to give a cold welcome, and whom their compatriots here are so splendidly relieving by their generosity. — *Jan. 6, 1906.*

Manufacturers' Record. — The natural sources of wealth in the South are so vast that population there cannot increase by nature rapidly enough to develop them to meet the demands of the country. The shortage is not confined to any one field, but affects the furnace, the mine, the forest, and the farmer alike. The opportunities in the South for work, both skilled and unskilled, are so great that there is no occasion for idleness on the part of natives of the South, and at the same time there is a wonderful chance for those of thrifty workers from other parts of the country. — *Baltimore, Md., Sept. 7, 1905.*

Mr. Herman Badenhoop, Secretary of the Maryland Bureau of Immigration, writes as follows: "In response to your request, I take great pleasure in writing a few lines in regard to the State Bureau of Immigration of Maryland. This office has been in existence now 10 years, and from the smallest beginnings it has become one of the most important departments of the State. . . . Of the 6,074 desirable immigrants who came here as the result of our efforts during the past 18 months, 1,156 came

from other States of the Union or from Canada. The rest, 4,918, were Europeans. A large number of these immigrants bought land, in all 33,616 acres, at an average price of \$25 an acre. A few rented farms, some went into mercantile business, and others went to work as laborers. Thus about \$800,000 worth of land was sold to people who probably would not have come to our State except for our advertising. It is my experience that these settlers generally buy farms where the land and buildings are in bad condition, which they, however, constantly improve, thereby doubling in value the property in a few years. . . . Considering that each of the 6,074 immigrants will consume about \$200 a year, the merchants of our State are benefited to the amount of \$1,250,000 per annum — certainly a good profit on the comparatively small investment of \$10,000 a year. — *Nov. 30, 1905.*

Hon. G. W. Koiner, Commissioner of the Virginia Department of Agriculture, has devised a practical plan which is expected to turn to Virginia several thousand able-bodied persons of Great Britain now in great want and seeking employment. . . . The plan is for State agents to select the best class of men wishing to come to Virginia, and where necessary provide them with tickets direct to Richmond, where they will find Commissioner Koiner ready to direct them to good homes and remunerative employment. It is proposed that the immigrant return the price of his ticket from his wages. . . . There is a business aspect about this plan which should induce the utmost possible liberality on the part of the Virginia Assembly towards its support. Commissioner Koiner has adopted the best policy in immigration work — to go after the immigrant, tell him of the State's opportunities, and direct him on his way. — *Jan. 11, 1906.*

Adolfo Rossi, Inspector, Royal Emigration Department of Italy. — Some years ago a few immigrants from Palazzo Adriano (Palermo) settled at Independence (La.) and, finding that a fertile soil yielded profitable crops, they wrote home, with the result that now there are 300 families at Independence from that one Sicilian village. American farmers had abandoned their farms because they deemed them too wet and subject to becoming swampy. The Sicilians bought them up at nominal prices, dug ditches throughout and a three-mile drainage canal, converting the swampy lands into excellent soil. Each family lays aside several hundred dollars yearly, which, except a small part sent to Italy, is deposited in the local Americau bank. A striking fact is that the Sicilians do not live in crowded quarters, but each family has its own house on its own separate farm. — *Charities, New York, Dec. 2, 1905.*

Bishop Henry C. Potter. — The questions which now confront the American people are two-fold: Whether (a) there should be any restriction to immigration, and (b) if so, upon what that restriction shall be based. It is not only perfectly competent, but perfectly equitable for a nation to restrict its immigration in its own interests. Self-preservation, we are wont to say, is the first law of nature. The American Republic exists for the illustration and propagation and the maintenance of certain ideals of civic government and of personal freedom. The invasion of a race which would destroy these would be a sufficient ground for resisting such invasion and excluding the invader, and no less would this be true of moral standards. The basis of high political ideals is of the eternal righteousness, and a race which by its moral or religious

standards would assault these would strike at the foundations of the Republic. Therefore, some restriction of immigration has in it the essential quality of equity.

But the moment this has been said, it should be remembered that this restriction can only be equitable when it is impartial. Its basis should be certain requirements which demand equally of all and every race certain qualifications for American citizenship. I believe that a common law which bore equally upon all those various races and peoples that are knocking at our doors would command the sympathy of the Republic and the votes of the upright men, but any proposed legislation must have in it the essential notes of equity and absolute freedom from racial prejudice.—*National Civic Federation Review, New York, July-Aug., 1905.*

Prof. Walter L. Fleming, of the University of West Virginia.—In recent years, especially within the last 10, there has been a gradual but marked change of sentiment in the South in regard to the desirability of immigration. The South now wants it and is working hard to get it. The resources of the South have scarcely been touched, and under the most favorable circumstances it will require many generations to develop them. There are millions of acres of cotton, cane, rice, and tobacco lands that have never been cultivated. Louisiana alone has 19,000,000 acres of vacant land out of a total of 26,000,000; and it is estimated that not more than one-eighth of the cotton lands of the South are in cultivation. The mineral resources of the South are almost unlimited; it has more timber than any other section of the United States; in every Southern State there is water-power never yet used, and there are ideal situations for market-gardening on the largest scale.

The negro cannot furnish either in quality or in quantity the labor necessary to develop the South. The progress of the South since the war has been almost wholly in the white districts.

Florida sends out lists of State lands, maps of the attractive portions of the State, and beautifully illustrated pamphlets relating to cattle-raising, lumbering, fruit and truck growing, fish and game, and winter resorts. Louisiana publishes free information concerning the climate, soil, resources, industries, schools, and churches, and sends out lists with descriptions and prices of 6,000,000 acres of land for sale. The other Southern States follow much the same methods. Most of the States have representatives in New York and in the West, whose business it is to disseminate information and secure immigration. The State immigration bureaus have had fair success.

Louisiana has probably secured the best results. The authorities confine their work principally in the middle West, aiming to attract substantial farmers rather than laborers. Since 1900 many Northern farmers have settled in Louisiana. South Carolina has secured several settlements of Scotch, Canadians, and Germans, and is now trying to secure Scandinavians. Maryland secured 4,000 very desirable immigrants in one year at an expense of only \$15,000. The "colony" plan has also brought desirable immigrants to the South.

The most potent factor in the immigration movement are the railroads. Each important railroad company has hundreds of thousands of acres of land for sale and wishes to see industries developed along its lines. On the first and third Tuesdays in each month special homeseekers' rates are offered on every road east of the Rockies that runs into the

South or the Southwest. On the night of September 15, 1903, the Iron Mountain road carried out of St. Louis within two hours six special trains with 3,000 homeseekers.

The South does not want the lower class foreigners who have swarmed into the Northern States; it wants the same sort of people who settled so much of the West.

In Louisiana, in 1900, there were 17,000 Italians; in 1904 there were 30,000. In that year it was estimated that more than 100,000 Italian farm laborers were working in the Southern States of the Mississippi Valley. Between New Orleans and Baton Rouge the Italian laborer has largely displaced the negro, and the same is true of many other localities. At Independence, Louisiana, in 1904, 275 car-loads of strawberries, valued at \$500,000, were produced by Italian laborers. A tract of 1,600 acres of land in this community sold, in 1879, for \$1,600; in 1904, 200 acres of the same tract sold for \$10,400. In the same community other pieces of land have risen in value from \$1 to \$50 an acre within two years. Many planters have substituted Italians for negroes as tenants. The former are not criminal, are prompt to pay debts, and have improved morally as well as materially since they arrived in America.

In conclusion, it may be said that immigration to the South seldom reaches the black belt. Where newcomers enter the black belt they go in colonies, settle near the railroad, and dispense with the negro. Compared with the great volume of immigration to the West and North, the numbers that go South are insignificant; but compared with the numbers that went South 10 years and more ago, the recent movement is very important. There is plenty of vacant land, and the Southerners say that if a million settlers have come and are satisfied, there is no reason why other millions may not come.—*National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D.C., Nov., 1905.*

Springfield Republican.—It is no doubt desirable, however, to secure a wider distribution in this country of new arrivals, but it must depend more upon the efforts of the Southern States than upon the National Government. If immigrants are to be induced to go South, those States must advertise, and they must have advantages to advertise. It does not help them to ask immigrants to come to States that are far behind others in respect to hours of labor and rate of wages paid, or where a reputation exists of holding human life cheaply.—*Dec 15, 1905.*

Fall River News.—The importance of a proper understanding of the contract labor law is dwelt upon in Commissioner-General Sargent's report. "No feature of the immigration law," declares Mr. Sargent, "has proved so difficult of enforcement as that which was passed for the protection of labor in this country from unfair competition by aliens." The chief obstacle in the way of such enforcement he attributes to the erroneous impression that it is a measure wrung from Congress against its will by the power of organized labor, "exact-
ing all it could obtain rather than seeking simple justice." The impression is so widely prevalent that it produces at least an indifference to the enforcement of the law, if not a hostile bias against it, and credits the law-making branch of the government with no worthier motive for enacting it than selfish fear. The bureau itself is viewed as in some sort a branch or agency of organized labor, sensitive to that body's interest and responsive to its wishes. "Perhaps labor itself," he adds, "is

not altogether free from blame for this false public impression, and thus unconsciously has played into the hands of those interests which find it to their account to alienate public sympathy by encouraging such a view." As an illustration, he cites an occasion during the last year when a branch of organized miners urged the bureau that an offending company, upon which it originally had been active in fixing the responsibility for a violation of the law, should not be prosecuted because the miners and the company had reached a settlement of their differences.—*Dec. 11, 1905.*

President Gompers of the American Federation of Labor, says: "If the American people adopt some practical measure that shall stop to a considerable degree this wholesale immigration of people from several monarchical countries where tyranny is the handmaid of poverty and misery, and these people be compelled to remain in their own countries, it will also compel them to find the remedy for their economic and social ills in their own country and compel reform and improvement."

There is something in this idea that is worthy of consideration. There is another aspect of it that is again worthy. These people who cannot reform their own countries, and who flee from oppression, come over here, and in a very short time we find them taking part in our government and voting and dictating as to how some of our larger American cities may be run. . . . If we could not go through the grammar schools of this city and find boys better able to express their opinions upon matters of American municipal government than an equal number of foreigners who have been under the naturalization hot-bed process, then we are very much mistaken. We are insulting the intelligence of our own native-born boys when we make it so easy for the new comer to participate in our government.—*Dec. 28, 1905.*

Leslie's Weekly.—Under the heading "The Harmful Contract Labor Law," *Leslie's Weekly*, published in New York City, says: "The officials of our Trans-Atlantic steamship companies have often been accused of holding out improper inducements to secure a revenue from immigrants, and thus to be partially responsible for the immense inflow of undesirable aliens to this country. Whether this is true or not, no sensible person will be inclined to question the justice and truthfulness of the statement made by Mr. Samuel S. Cortis, of the White Star Line, when, in the course of his testimony before the immigration commission appointed by President Roosevelt, he said that the present contract labor law is a detriment to the country because it tends to keep out the better class of people. Several events of recent occurrence show that the law works precisely in this way. One of these was the arrest and deportation of skilled weavers who had engaged abroad to work in certain Rhode Island mills. We fail to recall an instance, in fact, where the contract labor law has not worked to our detriment rather than otherwise. It is surely an inexplicable and exasperating state of things that our immigration laws should be so framed that they tend to keep out the class of people we need and to let in the class that we would be infinitely better off without."

American Monthly Review of Reviews.—Many of our people think of China as a land of ignorant coolies who are so inferior to ourselves as to rise scarcely to the plane of human beings. The fact is that China contains a greater number of educated and cultivated people than any other

country in the world. Their culture is not like ours, but it is based upon long study of literature, ethics, and philosophy, and it has been transmitted through many generations. The Chinese have not well learned how to act together; otherwise we should never have dared to treat them recklessly and unfairly.—*New York City, August, 1905.*

Boston Journal.—It is evident enough to all who study the question of foreign immigration, even superficially, that certain sections of this country are getting more foreigners than is good for either the foreigners or ourselves. They pour in a mass that refuses to go away from the sea-coast, or else proceeds to a very few favored localities inland. They hurt American labor; they lower the general tone and health of our great cities; they are, as a whole, a detriment to our national welfare. But what are we going to do about it? . . . There is just one measure that might be taken to rearrange this unequal system, and that is to shut the ports of Portland, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore entirely against immigration. That would compel the entrance of foreigners at the Southern gates, where the temptation to horde in cities would be much less. Something of the sort must inevitably come, if we are to remain essentially American here in our Northern cities.—*Dec. 8, 1905.*

American Cotton Manufacturer.—Alabama, through her Industrial and Commercial Association at the eleventh annual convention of that body, favored relief by the only practical means—immigration. . . . Immigration of the right sort was strongly favored—and nobody wants the undesirable, shiftless, or criminal. Each State was requested to appoint officials to increase the flow of immigrants southward, and it is safe to say that one day or another most of them will do something. Meantime, the cotton mills are suffering and cannot afford to wait until the ponderous governmental machinery of a number of States has overcome its inertia. We must up and help ourselves. In any movement that may be decided upon we have the experience of the North and West in their immigration campaigns to draw upon. Therefore our efforts ought to bring more speedy results at less cost. While the problem of the unemployed is almost paralyzing the government of England, our cotton mills all over the country are plagued to find workers. These men are of just the quality we need—speaking our language; understanding our institutions; used to labor and capable of quick assimilation.—*Charlotte, N. C., Nov. 16, 1905.*

Magazine of the International Brotherhood of Teamsters.—Nearly two-thirds of the entire immigration of the world is directed to the United States. The invasion and successful capture of the United States has been accomplished. None of the horrors of war were visible, and we provided the means of transporting the millions of invaders to our hospitable shores during the past decades. These invaders are very skilfully disguised under the form of "immigrants," and the railroad and steamship companies make a profit of \$50,000,000 a year in landing them. . . . It is possible for a contractor to secure any number of Italians or other laborers, at short notice, at about one-half the wages of the American standard, for sewer, railroad, mining, clothing trades, etc. Thus native labor suffers many hardships by this displacement. This system exists among the Poles, Hungarians, Greeks, Armenians, Russian Jews,

and others. Many Armenians and Greeks are employed in the cotton mills of New England, especially in Massachusetts, having been brought in to break strikes and to reduce wages. — *Indianapolis, Ind., December, 1905.*

Walter E. Weyl, Ph.D. — The unrestricted immigration into the United States has the effect of reducing wages or preventing an increase in wages, both by increasing the number of competitors for the available positions and by lowering, at least temporarily, the standard of the men who compete. In a third way it tends to reduce wages by making it more difficult for the working men composed of different nationalities to combine into trade unions in order to enforce their demands. Finally, the greater tendency of immigrants, by reason of their poverty, to permit or encourage the employment of their wives and children, still further increases the intensity of the competition for employment. This competition is felt primarily in the unskilled trades, but it is also encountered in the skilled trades by forcing a certain number of formerly unskilled workers into the skilled trades. The competition therein is rendered more acute, with the result that there is a general tendency to a reduction of wages. — *Bricklayer and Mason, Indianapolis, Ind., January, 1906.*

Hon. Knute Nelson, U. S. Senator from Minnesota. — What our country has temporarily lost in ethnic homogeneity has been more than recouped in the rapidity of our growth and in the physical and intellectual reinforcement and replenishment of our original stock. The early British settlers of America were of a composite race of many strains. The original Celtic stock had been blended and fortified with Danes, Norsemen, Angles, Jutes, Saxons, and Normans, during the centuries that worked the evolution of the English people. And this composite race, the founders, and principal ethnic base of our country, has, during the last 80 years, through this great volume of immigration, been grafted upon and greatly infused, with many fresh and vigorous stems and strains of Germanic, Latin, Slav, and other races — elements that have in themselves, in their native heaths, been greatly fortified and enriched since the days when their remote ancestors invaded and colonized Great Britain. This new human infusion, varied and numerous as it is, has largely replenished, virilized, rejuvenated, and transformed the original American stock. The Yankee, the first type of the American-Englishman, has become merged in the cosmopolitan American, still English speaking, with many of the original English characteristics, but in impulse, momentum, energy, and makeup, wholly unlike the original stock. The world no longer mistakes an American for an Englishman. There is a broad and deep gulf between the two, and this gulf has resulted in a great measure from the ethnic upheaval arising from the great inflow of immigration. — *American Industries, New York City, Dec. 15, 1905.*

Hon. Robert W. Bonynge, M. C. from Colorado. — The educational test meets with a great deal of popular favor. The test proposed in the different bills that have been submitted to Congress is the ability of the alien to read a few lines of our National Constitution in English, or any other language, and to write from dictation a few lines of the same instrument. Such a test, it is argued, is unsatisfactory, even in ascertaining the educational qualifications of the aliens, and in course of time in practical operation it is quite conceivable

that it might become a farce. It is quite generally conceded that illiteracy does not of itself necessarily render an immigrant undesirable, but it is argued that undesirables on other grounds would be debarred by establishing the educational test. It would appear to be more logical to specify the other grounds of objection, and, if possible, keep out all undesirables, while admitting all of the "right kind." The educational test is far better than none, as it would undoubtedly keep out many undesirables; but the question still remains whether some more satisfactory method of discrimination cannot be devised. — *American Industries, Aug. 1, 1905.*

G. G. Jordan, Cotton Mill President. — The main cause of all this is that we have exhausted the available labor of the South which is capacitated by birth and adaptation for textile work. Hence there is in several of the Southern States much idle machinery. A telegram from New Bedford in the last few days conveys the intelligence that the Mississippi Mills, at Wesson, Miss., have just made a contract with 100 or more weavers at New Bedford and are moving them to Wesson because they could not find weavers in Mississippi. These weavers are under a contract for a year at \$2 each for each working day.

Speaking solely for our mills, as a matter of certainty I can truthfully say that there are in them now, and have been for some months, a good many openings unfilled for competent mill help. Practically all other mills South are in like condition. We therefore are to-day discussing a condition, not a theory. There may be certain periods when the mills are enabled to run all of their machinery, but these periods are of short duration, and generally the extra labor has been filched by extra inducements from some unsuspecting neighbor. There is in cotton mill operatives an innate migratory instinct which makes many of them prefer to be continually changing from mill to mill. No investment in manufacturing can ever prove attractive so long as there is any large portion of the machinery idle. It is a fact beyond controversy that idle machinery in the South at the present time is caused solely by the lack of competent labor. — *American Industries, Aug. 15, 1905.*

Rev. Joel S. Ives. — It can hardly be said that the State of Connecticut encourages immigration, although its position with reference to the ports of entry favor the incoming of the alien. The fact that there are large settlements in all parts of the State is a strong influence favoring immigration, while natural causes operate rapidly to increase the foreign percentage which is already more than 60. Connecticut is conservative and proud of her history, but for the most part aliens are welcomed, as they are a needful factor in the development of both the rural and the urban problems. There is no portion of the State where the immigrant from every part of the world has not made his home, and no line of business or occupation which he has not entered with commendable success. The largest increment is found in the manufacturing centers. . . . The same influences which brought our New England civilization, our Puritan conscience, and our Christian ideals must obtain with our present heterogeneous populations, possessing such variant notions and impelled by such different motives. . . . We must know no class nor castes. The employee and the employer must mutually make for righteousness. A fair wage and a square deal must be a common aim. The spirit of brother-

hood, the public press, the common schools, and the church with her missionary enterprises, are the forces which presage the future of our Republic. — *American Industries*, Aug. 15, 1905.

George L. Flanders, First Assistant Commissioner of Agriculture.—New York State, during the year ending June 30, 1905, absorbed 263,000 immigrants, of which 38 per cent were Italian, 23 per cent Hebrew, six per cent each of German, Irish, and Polish, five per cent Scandinavians, and the balance of other nationalities. Their occupations were given as: Professional, 1.2 per cent; merchants, 2 per cent; farmers, 2 per cent; skilled, 21 per cent; farm laborers, 8 per cent; servants, 12 per cent; laborers, 25 per cent; no occupation, 29 per cent. The most serious phase, so far as New York State is concerned, lies in the colonization of the vast numbers of ignorant immigrants in her larger cities and towns. . . . The great development of all manufacturing industries in this State from 1880 to 1900 added 317,523 people to their working force, increased capital 220 per cent, manufactured products 102 per cent, and added \$210,000,000 to the wages of labor. . . . An important question confronting the Department now is how to induce the alien, who seems prone to colonize in New York and the larger cities and towns of the State, to go out into these rural districts where his services are needed. Many immigrants return to their native countries each year, of whom no record is kept. Some 145,000, it is estimated, returned to Italy last year, and many thousand to other countries. Of those who came last year 103,750 had been in the United States before. The condition of business in the United States has much to do with the rise and fall of the tide of immigration.—*American Industries*, Sept. 1, 1905.

American Industries.—During the Summer and Fall, the Immigration Restriction League made a canvass of the wishes of the South for immigration. Over 5,000 letters and lists of questions were sent to State officers, mayors, commercial clubs, industrial associations, boards of trade, chambers of commerce, immigration societies, real estate men, large manufacturers and contractors, editors and other influential citizens. Nearly half of those addressed have answered, and in many cases have written at some length. . . . As to the kind of immigrants desired, native-born Americans were first choice. Throughout the South, with the exception of Birmingham and one or two mining districts, there was a deep-rooted hostility to the illiterate from extremely Southern and Southeastern Europe, and a decided first preference for North Europeans and a slight demand here and there for Orientals, owing to their servility and racial clannishness. But the kind of immigrants most sought by every locality was the small family with some money, that would settle in the rural districts. With regard to further legislation there was a striking unanimity in favor of the exclusion of illiterates, persons of poor physique, and aliens desirous of settling in the cities and averse to country life, because, as many of the letters put it "None of these are wanted."—*New York City*, Jan. 1, 1906.

The Iron Age.—It is a curious fact that there is a latent spirit of hostility all through the South and even in the Birmingham district to imported labor. There is a feeling that the purest Anglo-Saxon stock in the country is to be found in the South and that immigration of the present kind will gradually deteriorate the Southern blood. Some of the Southern newspapers refer to the danger that

Southern ideals of exclusiveness would encounter if a flood of immigration was turned loose upon them. This purely sentimental view of the situation can have very little weight in the long run, however much present influence it may exert.—*New York City*, Nov. 2, 1905.

Lydia Kingsmill Commander.—The defenders of this reckless immigration always advance the argument that we all come of European stock if we only trace our families back far enough. But there is a marked difference between the immigration of the past and of the present. Those who came to America, even a generation ago, were the energetic, capable, and fearless of other lands—those who were prosperous enough to pay their passage money and daring enough to risk a long sea voyage and the unfamiliar conditions of a new country. Now the ships' companies have so systemized the immigrant traffic that it is almost easier for the shiftless and incapable to come to America than to stay at home. Hence the failures, the "beaten men of beaten races," the incompetents, and often even the criminals and idiots of foreign lands are poured in a ceaseless and swelling tide upon our too hospitable shores. Once landed, these assisted immigrants are to the employer a weapon, to the worker a menace. They become the problem and the care of organized labor.—*American Federationist*, Washington, D. C., Oct., 1905.

L. J. Bryant.—Not only is the origin of the yellow fever traceable directly to the Italian, but he has been the greatest obstacle in handling the plague by reason of his uncleanness and herding together in buildings insufficiently ventilated. The fever germs seem to thrive in his localities, and he is the very last man to report to the health authorities the presence of the fever, while the negro is practically an immune from yellow fever. To the South this preference for the negro over the Italian cannot be overestimated, and it is a combination of geographical and climatic condition that cannot be remedied either. The Italian will hardly be able to atone for the mischief he has done in scattering this dread malady. If the Italian should supplant the negro in the South, what would become of the some 8,000,000 of negroes? These are making a fair living now, and making it by the sweat of the brow, but how would they make it if the Italian stepped in their places of earning a livelihood? The country would be overrun with a restless, pilfering, seething mass that would fairly threaten the security of our pursuits.—*Manufacturers' Record*, Sept. 29, 1905.

Hon. Charles Scott of Rosedale, Miss.—During my recent visit to Italy I was astonished to find that so many of these men were small landowners. Of course, the title to a vast majority of the holdings is vested in the aristocracy and other large landed proprietors, but near Bologna and at certain points in the United Kingdom the small holdings, while nothing like as numerous as we find them in France, far exceeded my expectations. I visited some of these people in their homes. They received me cordially, and I was most favorably impressed with them. They are a stalwart, industrious, and hardy race. . . . The individual Italian has no cause to be ashamed of his achievements, either in the old world or the new. Just now, however, we are only concerned with his record on this side of the Atlantic, which, all things considered, is highly creditable, and is a lasting monument to his enterprise and industry. . . . In the West, as miners, farmers, and vegetable and fruit growers,

they have been equally successful. But in the South, which must always remind the Italian of his native land, they do the best of all. . . . The South must have a supply of new labor. Manifestly, then, this experiment with the Italian farmer is one of supreme importance. His climate, so similar to ours, his industry and frugality, his tenacity and perseverance, and last, but not least, his desire to unite his fortunes with ours, all point to his availability.—*Manufacturers' Record*, Nov. 9, 1905.

The Republic.—Most of the discussion of immigration, of the type indulged in by Representative Gudger of North Carolina on last Tuesday, is long-winded and academic; for the few facts that count are obvious, and they lead to the logical conclusion that public opinion in the United States has held for generations and is likely to continue to hold.

The dominant principle that underlies the policy of our country, which has been continuous except during the brief period of the Know-Nothing party, is that it is good and proper in morals and in economics to welcome newcomers of the white races, except only those individuals whose physical or economic or moral condition is hopeless or dangerous. This principle is expressed in our present law, the aim of which is to exclude assisted paupers and the like, but to admit, without discrimination, persons from all European countries.

The exclusion of the Chinese brings in another principle. The necessarily and discourteously harsh law against their coming was enacted in response to the demands of California labor leaders; but a limitation of immigration from Asia is approved by the public sentiment of the country. Still no limitation—not even this—is defensible on merely personal grounds. If you ask whether as an individual a Chinese coolie be not entitled to as courteous treatment as a Russian Jew or an Italian peasant, you must confess that he is. But a national policy of immigration cannot be based on the preservation of the economic and political health of the people. Unrestricted coolie immigration would do violence to this economic and political health.

It is absurd to forbid the coming of a limited number of willing workers from China whose labor is needed here, and there is a growing sentiment on the Pacific Coast in favor of a limited immigration and against exclusion.

The opposition to immigration from Europe also comes chiefly from the labor leaders. "Shall we admit low-priced men to competition with American labor?" they ask with plausibility in a country which maintains a protective tariff. But their reasoning is unsound, because the "low-priced" man soon becomes a "higher-priced" man. He becomes a new kind of man in the United States. Any great restriction of immigration would cause the emigration of American capital and enterprise to other countries. If satisfactory labor cannot be employed in the United States, our manufacturers will put up their factories abroad which do work for foreign markets.

The historic policy of the open door to men of all assimilable peoples will remain our policy certainly for a long time to come. For it is as true as it ever was that our greatest need is of productive men even to do the fundamental tasks of our country's development. Men are needed in the West as they were never needed before; and the South, in its new era of prosperity, is held back for lack of good laborers for almost every grade of work. Much of its machinery is idle for lack of operators, and

millions of acres of untilled land await a more profitable culture than that vast region has ever had.

We need better safeguards against the criminals and paupers of Europe; but the policy of the open door for all European peoples is not going to suffer change, and even the narrow spirit of absolute prohibition of Asiatic immigration will yield to common sense—which is good economics put into practice.—*Boston, Mass., Feb. 10, 1906.*

Inquirer and Mirror.—Abandoned farms—not ownerless but practically deserted since the young people went to the cities or the old folks died off—are selling well in Vermont. A lot of them have been bought up in the last year—not by the descendants of the old owners who want them for summer homes or who have been inspired by Old Home Week discourses to hold on to the old place, but by Jews from New York and Boston and other cities, who have heeded the call of "Back to the farm" that the New Englanders have ignored. And these Jews are said to have good faculty for getting the overgrown land quickly into shape for market gardening and, with their knowledge of what the city markets want, to be rather clever farmers. This spreading out of the newcomers into the country is a little disconcerting to those who hold old New England sacred; but it is going to offer the best solution of the problem of the overcrowded cities.—*Nantucket, Mass., Feb. 10, 1906.*

Boston Advertiser.—Considering the question of "Imported Criminals," this paper stated: Almost simultaneously there comes from Chicago and from New York startling statistics in relation to the prevalence of crime in these two greatest cities in the country. While the conditions in those two cities are not to be taken as an exact gauge of the criminal tendency of the country, they may fairly be regarded as but exaggerated symptoms of a national disorder which needs attention. This spread of crime throughout the country is not necessarily closely related to the alleged loosening of moral principles which some have read into the history of the day. Rather, it is, to a greater extent, the natural product of our system of receiving any and all sorts of people from foreign lands, and letting them plunge headfirst into a license which they mistake for liberty. In Chicago there are now pending 90 cases of homicide. In New York there were, according to the report of Magistrate Wahle, 18,388 more crimes committed last year than the year before. It is a bad showing, and is too eloquently indicative of what may come next year or the year after. . . . The ignorant foreigner who comes here sees all around him, in the district to which he gravitates, men and women living on the proceeds of crime. What more natural than that he should try his hand at the same game? What the country needs, more than anything else, is a strict and impartial enforcement of the laws now on the statute books. Until this is done there can be no hope of improvement. The country, as a whole, is not morally worse than it was a decade ago. But the opportunities and the temptations for crime are greater, and the chances of punishment sometimes seem to be fewer.—*Feb. 1, 1906.*

Southern Farm Magazine.—At a recent meeting at New Orleans of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Capt. J. F. Merry, of Manchester, Ia., General Immigration Agent of the Illinois Central Railroad, explained with some detail the methods of railways in developing traffic and industry. He said:

"In 1880, when the fact developed that the Eastern States could no longer supply the demands of the West for table luxuries, the States of Tennessee, Mississippi, and Louisiana—especially that portion of them adjacent to the Illinois Central Railroad—began to experiment with strawberries, peaches, and nearly every variety of vegetables. These experiments were fostered and encouraged by the railroad company, not from philanthropic motives, but to increase its revenue. No one was more astonished at the success of such experiments than the planters themselves. . . . With its usual enterprise and common sense methods the company urged that experiments with strawberries and vegetables be made. The results were satisfactory not only to the farmers, but to the railroad company, beyond all expectation. Immediately this particular section of the South was advertised as especially adapted to the growing of strawberries and garden truck for early Northern markets. Immigration from the North and Northwest slowly but surely turned in this direction. The first shipment of strawberries was made from Louisiana in 1879, and consisted of 16 crates shipped to Chicago by American Express. . . . In 1903, there were shipped from points on the Illinois Central Railroad in Mississippi and Louisiana, direct to Chicago, 2,634,700 pounds, or 128 carloads of strawberries. . . . A careful consideration of what one railroad has accomplished in the development of the cities, towns, and country through which it runs should convince the most skeptical that railroads are necessary to the still further expansion of American industries.

In conclusion, allow me to say that but for the determined efforts of the railroad managers to develop their traffic by practical methods—by encouraging the establishment of industries to work up the raw material found in nearly every section of the country, and by enormous expenditures of money in advertising to secure immigration—the people of the United States would not be able to boast as they do now of a population of more than

82,000,000 who are about to celebrate the going out of 1905 and the ushering in of the new year 1906 under the most peaceful and prosperous condition ever known in any nation or among any people."—*Baltimore, Md., Feb., 1906.*

Wm. Lloyd Garrison.—What is the coolie class? And with what fitness can Democrats, claiming to be disciples of Jefferson, recognize and approve this class distinction? The term "coolie" is itself deceptive, originally applied to men subject to a form of slavery, but now used to include the common Chinese laborer who comes to us from individual motives. So the United States, which would protect with force all Americans in China, declines to give protection to Chinese in this country who are so degraded as to engage in manual labor. Merchants, scholars, diplomats, wealthy men of leisure bent on travel are to be treated with courteous consideration, but the Chinese handworker has no rights which Americans are bound to respect.

Considering that Boston was the recent scene of a brutal raid upon the inoffensive and industrious people of Chinatown, that men were roughly dragged to court in scores, without the service of writs, and as pitilessly judged as were the fugitive slaves of old, courage was the quality more needed at the banquet than tact or courtesy.

The astute and intelligent members of the commission will not be duped by this fulsome reception. Professions of distinguished regard, backed by an alarmed mercantile interest fearful of losing trade, and theological institutions trembling for the prosperity of foreign missions, furnish slender ground for confidence. Not a humanitarian throb is discernible in this ostentatious display of amity. Brotherly regard would be better shown by earnest protest against the infamous Chinese restrictive laws and a recognition of human rights in the treatment of our Chinese fellow-citizens. How incongruous was this talk of classes on the evening when the nation was celebrating the birthday of Abraham Lincoln, the rail-splitter of Illinois.—*Letter to Boston Herald, Feb. 15, 1906.*

INDUSTRIAL AGREEMENTS.

The Bureau in this issue starts on the third year of the presentation of joint trade agreements in the Bulletin. As our readers have expressed their appreciation of the value of the industrial agreements between employers and employees, such presentation will be continued indefinitely. In this number we have given a few agreements for other States in order that the difference from local conditions may be seen.

Chicago.

BOX MAKERS AND SAWYERS.

Employers and United Order of Box Makers and Sawyers of America, Local No. 1.

1. Employers agree to employ only members of union in good standing, and carrying the regular working card of the union. United Order of Box

Makers and Sawyers concedes the right of employers to hire whomsoever they please.

2. All complaints shall be presented in writing through the proper representatives of the interested parties hereto.

3. The minimum scale of wages for day work for the following three years commencing Jan. 2, 1906, and ending Dec. 31, 1908, shall be as per hourly scale:

	1906 (Cents)	1907 (Cents)	1908 (Cents)
Hand nailers, . . .	27½	27½	27½
Rip sawyers, . . .	27½	27½	27½
Cross cut sawyers, . .	21½	22	22½
Machine hands (framer),	26½	27	27½
Bottom and topper, .	21½	22	22½
Cleaters (continuously em- ployed on machine),	21½	22	22½
Blocker (continuously em- ployed on machine),	21½	22	22½
Dove-tail machine (one in charge), . . .	26	26	26
Mill hands,* . . .	—	—	—
Groovers (one in charge),	27½	27½	27½
Assistant filer (one in charge), . . .	22½	22½	22½
Printing presses (one in charge), . . .	21½	22	22½
Trimmers and squeezers (one in charge), . . .	18	18½	19
Apprentices, . . .	\$1.25†	—	—

* To be paid the same rate per hour as the Wood Workers' present scale of wages.

† Per day.

4. In consideration of the above the Union agrees that the employers shall be furnished and have the right to use the union label issued by the United Order of Box Makers and Sawyers of America.

5. Employers shall be allowed one apprentice for each five sets of saws, majority fraction thereof, in each shop. Each apprentice shall serve a term of one year; wages of apprentice to be 12½ cents an hour. No one shall be accepted as an apprentice who is under the age of 16 or over 20.

6. In the event of trouble, differences shall be settled by bringing the matter before the employers and a representative or representatives of the Union. If no settlement is arrived at the dispute shall be referred to an Arbitration Committee, composed of one member appointed by employers, one member appointed by the Union, and a third member selected by these two parties. The Committee's decision shall be final.

7. The regular hours of labor shall consist of 55 a week, 10 hours a day for the first five working-days, between the hours 7 A.M. and 6 P.M., and five hours on Saturday, from 7 A.M. to 12 M. In the event of its being necessary to work overtime, the work shall be continued at the rate of time and one-half. Payment of wages shall be made by employers according to the practice now prevailing. Time and one-half will be charged for all work done on Decoration and Thanksgiving Day; no work to be done on New Year's, Fourth of July, Labor Day or Christmas Day.

8. It is agreed that the scale of wages for renewing or continuing this contract for the next year shall be submitted by the Union on the first week of September, 1908.

This agreement shall be in force from Jan. 2, 1906, to Dec. 31, 1908.

New York.

ELEVATOR CONSTRUCTORS AND MILLWRIGHTS.
Local Elevator Company and Elevator Constructors and Millwrights Union of New York and Vicinity: Local No. 1.

Firm agrees that on and after Jan. 1, 1906, all workmen in its employ outside, either on repairs, wrecking or new work, in the Borough of Manhat-

tan, City of New York, and within a radius of 25 miles thereof, shall be members of Elevator Constructors and Millwrights Union No. 1, of New York, and shall work according to the following rules, which rules are included in and form a part of this agreement:

1. On and after Jan. 1, 1906, the working-day shall consist of eight hours, from 8 A.M. until 5 P.M., except on Saturday, when it shall consist of four hours, from 8 A.M. until 12 M., or 44 hours a week. All work performed between 5 P.M. and 8 A.M., on any Sunday, or any legal holiday, or after 12 M. on Saturday shall be known as overtime, and paid for at double rate of regular time, all overtime to commence not later than 9 P.M.

2. The regular time shall be paid for at the rate of 56½ cents an hour, or \$4.50 a day for mechanics, and 37½ cents an hour, or \$3 a day for helpers.

3. Eight hours shall be carried on tally and time sheets, and the men are to be paid for any fraction of a day at the rate of eight hours a day.

4. Workmen shall be paid on the job, or at the office, on the time of the firm.

5. The number of helpers on any job shall not exceed the number of mechanics, except for the purpose of handling material.

6. The firm shall supply all necessary tools to be used on iron work.

7. All workmen working outside the Borough of Manhattan, Brooklyn, and the Bronx, or the cities of Hoboken and Jersey City, shall leave on the train or boat nearest to 8 A.M., time and expenses to be paid by the firm.

8. The firm may employ apprentices provided that the number of apprentices shall not exceed one to every five mechanics in their employ. No apprentice so employed shall be over 18 years at the commencement of his employment, the wages of apprentices to be \$1.50 a day. After three years' employment each apprentice shall take out a helper's card.

The firm further agrees that the following work shall be performed only by the Elevator Constructors and Millwrights Union No. 1:

All millwright work complete. All elevator work used in any manner for the complete and safe operation of the elevator; the assembling of all elevator machinery, to wit: all hydraulic parts, steam, electric, belts, compressed air or hand-power; also assembling and building escalators, the assembling of all cars complete; putting up all guides, either of wood or iron; the setting of all tanks, whether pressure, open or pit tanks; the setting of all pumps; where pumps arrive on any job in parts they are to be assembled by members of the said union; all electric work connected with the cars, machinery in hoistways, and wire from switch in motor room to control; all overhead work either of wood or iron and necessary blocking under same; the setting of all templates, all automatic gates, all indicators, except electrical; all foundations, either of wood, iron or concrete that will take the place of masonry; the digging and sinking of all holes and setting of all cylinders and pistons for Plunger elevators; the lowering and handling of all material used in the construction of elevators and escalators; the care of all pumps and running of all temporary cars in buildings in course of erection. It is agreed that concrete foundations may be subtle.

It is agreed, that in case the setting of pit tanks, automatic gates or concrete foundations are not included in the elevator contract, the work shall

not be claimed by the Elevator Constructors, and in the event of controversy with any other trade as to the proper jurisdiction of these three items, the same shall be referred to General Arbitration Board of the Building Trades Employers' Association for final settlement by arbitration.

Elevator Constructors and Millwrights Union No. 1 agrees to work for the firm pursuant to the working rules hereinbefore set forth and forming part of this agreement.

It is mutually agreed by the parties hereto that the Arbitration Plan adopted at a conference held April 22, 1905, between the Board of Governors of the Building Trades Employers' Association and the representative of the Labor Unions, is hereby made a part of this agreement and binding on all parties hereto.

And it is hereby mutually agreed, that no change in wages, or in the hours constituting a day's labor, shall be asked for by either party unless change is to take place on the first day of January, 1908; but the party asking for such change shall first give notice to the other party, in writing, on or before the first day of July preceding the said day of January.

No discrimination shall be made against any member of the said Union. All communications intended to be forwarded to the said Union by the firm shall be sent by the Manager, Superintendent or other Executive of the firm.

This agreement shall continue in full force and effect from Jan. 1, 1906, until Jan. 1, 1908, both dates inclusive.

Maine Central Railroad.

TELEGRAPHERS.

Rules and Rates of Pay Effective May 1, 1905.

1. The term "telegrapher" in these articles of agreement applies to operators and other employees whose regular work requires them to perform the duties of a telegrapher of any character or in any amount.

2. The right of promotion of telegraphers will extend within the jurisdiction of each division superintendent, and will be governed by merit, fitness and ability.

The superintendent of each division will be the judge of qualification, keeping a record of each telegrapher, which will consist of merits, demerits and term of service.

3. Telegraphers will be advised of all permanent vacancies or new positions by notice sent to each telegraph office. Such vacancies or positions will not be filled permanently for 10 days when practicable to avoid doing so.

4. Telegraphers will not be disciplined or dismissed without cause. In case discipline is thought to be unjust, the employee may refer his case in writing to the division superintendent, after which he shall be given a hearing within seven days. The aggrieved party may be present at all investigations, and may be represented by a fellow employee of the same class. In the event of this investigation proving unsatisfactory, the case may be appealed to higher officials in regular order. If accused is found blameless, he will be reinstated and his record will remain as previous thereto, and he shall receive pay for all time lost.

5. Telegraphers assigned to work for which wage schedule does not name, compensation to be allowed minimum wage of \$1.75 a day.

6. At all agencies where an outside income is received, such as telegraph, express companies, Post-

office Department, or from connecting railroads, this amount will be considered in arriving at their rate of pay.

7. Twelve consecutive hours, including one hour for meals, will constitute a day's work. Overtime to begin after the expiration of twelve hours and thirty-one minutes, said thirty-one minutes to count one hour, and will be paid for on a basis of twenty cents per hour.

Requests for overtime must be filed within 48 hours from time service is performed; if same is not allowed, notice, with explanation, will be given within five days.

The above arrangement of hours will not be construed to increase the hours of service at offices now on a basis of less than 12 hours.

8. If, for any purpose, telegraphers are called by proper authority before or after regular hours, they shall be paid on a basis of 17½ cents an hour, and minimum time allowed of four hours.

9. Sunday work for all employees will be reduced to the lowest possible minimum. The wage schedule provides in the compensation fixed for such services as are needed for the regular train arrangements. Remuneration, however, will be paid at all stations on Sundays where Agent or Day Operator or Ticket Agent is held on duty for a period of more than five hours. Allowance to be at rate of \$1.75 a day.

10. Extra telegraphers will receive the same compensation as the persons they relieve, except where extra men are paid a stated monthly salary. Telegraphers holding regular positions, when sent to work in other offices temporarily, will receive no less compensation than their regular positions entitle them to.

11. Telegraphers attending court, or if absent from their regular duties under order of the railroad, will be allowed regular pay and necessary expenses while away from home.

12. Relief will be granted a telegrapher, if upon a complaint and investigation he is found to be over-worked.

It is intended that the above refers to all work incident to the station.

13. When transferred, telegraphers will be furnished free transportation for family and effects, and will be allowed regular pay while in transit in making such transfer.

14. Telegraphers will be granted leave of absence, so far as consistent with good service, and will be relieved as soon as possible after application for same is made.

15. This agreement will take effect May 1, 1905, and will continue in effect until changed by mutual agreement. Thirty days' notice of desire to change will be given.

Monthly rates of pay on the different divisions are as follows, classified by positions:

Portland Division.

Agent and Operator ranging from \$25 to \$75.

Assistant Agent ranging from \$15 to \$45.

Baggage Master \$45.

Clerk and Operator ranging from \$35 to \$60.

Day Operator ranging from \$40 to \$55.

Night Operator ranging from \$47.50 to \$50.

Operator Selling Tickets ranging from \$25 to \$71.25.

Eastern Division.

Agent and Operator ranging from \$35 to \$75.

Assistant Agent \$35.

Baggage Master \$45.

Clerk and Operator \$30 and \$50.
 Day Operator ranging from \$40 to \$65.
 Night Operator \$47.50 and \$50.
 Operator Selling Tickets \$50 and \$55.

Mountain Division.

Agent and Operator ranging from \$30 to \$65.
 Assistant Agent \$37 and \$40.
 Clerk and Operator \$45 and \$50.
 Day Operator ranging from \$20 to \$50.
 Night Operator ranging from \$42.50 to \$50.
 Operator Selling Tickets (Summer) \$100.
 Operator Selling Tickets (Winter) \$50.

Boston.

COAL HANDLERS.

Coal Merchants and Coal Stevedores of Boston and Vicinity and Coal Handlers of Boston, Affiliated with I. L. M. and T. A.: Local No. 623.

1. Men unloading vessels shall receive 30 cents an hour for day work, 35 cents an hour for night work from 8 P.M. to 6 A.M., and 50 cents an hour for Sundays and holidays. When bunkering steamers men will receive 30 cents an hour for day work, 40 cents an hour for night work, and 60 cents an hour for Sundays and holidays.

2. Hourly men to be paid when vessel is finished, or as soon after as possible. Men called out at night shall be paid from time slated.

3. Where men are employed by the ton, the pay shall be 15 cents with a stageman, or 12 cents without a stageman.

4. When men are employed on lighters by the hour, they shall receive pay from the time they leave the wharf until they return.

5. The Union agrees that no strike will take place unless a grievance exists between employer and employee; both parties agree to submit any disagreement to a committee of three, one chosen by the employers, one by the employees, and the third to be chosen by these two, and their decision shall be accepted as final by both parties.

This agreement shall not be altered and shall remain in force for one year from Jan. 1, 1906.

Brockton.

STATIONARY ENGINEERS.

Employers and Stationary Engineers, I. U. S. E., Local No. 111.

1. Ten hours shall constitute a day's work, including time necessary to raise steam in the morning and time taken to wipe engine after shutting down. Where a shorter workday obtains the engineer shall share, or continue to share, in such reduction without loss of pay.

2. The minimum wage shall be \$3 a day with no loss time for holidays or temporary shut-downs. Sunday work shall be at the same rate. Time over 10 hours shall be 50 cents an hour for each hour or fraction of an hour.

3. The engineer shall not be required to do work properly belonging to any other trade or craft. None but union help, satisfactory to the engineer in charge, to be employed in the engineering department.

4. The chief operating engineer shall have charge of the entire steam plant, lighting, heating, main belts and main shafting. He shall supervise all repairs to the same and shall specify all supplies and appliances necessary for its successful operation.

5. No engineer shall be required to operate a plant without assistance when more than fifty horse-power is developed in the boiler or boilers.

6. An engineer shall not be called upon to leave his plant while the engine is in operation for more than ten minutes at a time unless a duly licensed engineer is left in charge.

7. If an engineer is operating a boiler and engine alone all fuel shall be supplied to him in reach, in the boiler room, and all ashes shall be removed therefrom.

8. The above schedule shall apply to all chief engineers, assistants, firemen or night men who are required to hold an engineer's license of whatsoever class, and it is understood and agreed that engineers now receiving more than the rate herein specified shall suffer no reduction.

9. The engineer shall, at all times, perform his duties in a thorough and workmanlike manner and shall strive to make his employer's interests identical with his own. We also pledge ourselves to the principle of arbitration in adjusting any differences that may arise, and we are especially desirous of cultivating that feeling of mutual respect so necessary for harmonious relations between employer and employee, so essential for the attainment of the highest ideals of business life.

This agreement is to take effect Jan. 1, 1906.

Lynn.

ELECTRICAL WORKERS.

Employers and International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers of America: Lynn Local No. 377.

1. Eight hours shall constitute a day's work.

2. All overtime shall be paid for at the rate of time and one-half, except between 9 P.M. and 6 A.M., which shall be double time. Sundays and holidays shall be double time.

3. The holidays recognized in this agreement are as follows: Washington's Birthday, Patriots' Day, Memorial Day, Independence Day, Labor Day, Thanksgiving Day and Christmas Day, and any other day made a special holiday either by the President of the United States or the Governor of Massachusetts.

4. Workmen shall report for duty at the hour specified by the shop in which they are employed, either at the shop or on the job, as directed, providing such job is on any car line and within three miles of the shop, and all carfares from the shop to job and from job to shop, and between jobs, to be paid for by firm. Also all time consumed in making such trips to be considered as working time and paid for by the firm accordingly.

5. In making daily trips on work located more than three miles from the shop, firms shall pay all carfares and pay for all time consumed in traveling both ways, except when the men get in a full day, in which case time not exceeding one-half an hour shall be given by the men for returning.

6. On out-of-town work the firm shall pay all expenses for married men and foremen, and \$2.50 a week for room rent for single men. All work at too great a distance from the shop for daily trips shall be considered out-of-town work.

7. If the workmen do not receive their pay on the job on pay day, they shall report at the shop at the regular quitting time for it.

8. The minimum wages for journeymen shall be \$3 a day.

9. The firm shall not employ any journeymen or helpers who are not members of Local No. 377,

I. B. E. W., except such journeymen and helpers secure a permit from said Local. Neither shall any member of said Local work for any firm who does not comply with all the requirements of this agreement.

10. A firm shall not employ more than one helper for every one journeyman.

11. A helper shall be eligible to a journeyman's card after working three years at the business and passing the examination required by Local 377, and shall then receive not less than the minimum scale of wages for journeymen.

12. The minimum wages for helpers shall be \$1.50 a day for the first year, and \$2 a day for the balance of the time.

13. No helper shall work on a job unless with a journeyman the first two years of his time. The third year he may be permitted to do work by himself, but under the supervision of a journeyman.

14. The firm shall furnish all necessary tools for conduit work, drills, special tools, hack-saw blades,

and all bits over regular lengths and over one inch in diameter, and all bits for boring machine.

15. Employers shall not lump out, piece out or sublet any of the work to any member in their employ; neither shall any journeyman, while in the employ of any signers of this agreement, be allowed to take any contract or piece-work of any shape or manner from any person whatsoever.

16. Helpers shall be required to have the following tools: One set of compass saws, one rachet brace, two screw drivers ($\frac{1}{8}$ inch and $\frac{3}{16}$ inch), one pair side cutting pliers (6 inches), one pair gas pliers (6 inches), one two-foot rule, one claw hammer and one 10-inch Stilson pipe wrench.

17. No firm shall discriminate against any member of Local No. 377 on account of said member's connection with any such committee.

18. This agreement between Employers and Local No. 377, of the I. B. E. W., goes into effect Nov. 1, 1905, and cannot be annulled before Nov. 1, 1906, but may be amended at any time by a majority of both parties.

TRADE UNION NOTES.

Inquiries are being constantly made at this Department for current information regarding trade unions, particularly those of Massachusetts, and those internationals with which our local unions are affiliated. This section is introduced to record, as far as possible, matters of general public interest relating to trade unionism. As no information will be considered under this caption unless received from official sources, the co-operation of trade unions and their officers is necessary for a continuance of the section.

Tapestry Carpet Weavers, Westborough.

Tapestry Carpet Weavers No. 484 of Westborough, Massachusetts, organized in January, 1905, resumed holding regular meetings last December. From August to December no meetings were held, and little interest was taken in the organization, inasmuch as the firm employing most of the union labor members closed its mill and the weavers found work in other places. A resumption of work at the mill resulted in a re-organization of the union.

Agreements of United Hatters of North America and Manufacturers.

It is found that agreements between the Locals of the United Hatters of North America and hat and cap manufacturers differ more widely than agreements between other labor unions and employers. All manufacturers of stiff and soft hats working under the jurisdiction of the United Hatters have the same conditions in respect to hours of labor; *i.e.*, nine on five days of the week and five on Saturday, making 50 hours a week. All are on the same footing as to the number of apprentices allowed. In the finishing and sizing of hats, which is the principal part of the labor cost of production, a minimum price is established for all manufacturers, no matter in what section of the United States

the manufacturer is located. All work is done by the piece-price system.

Carpenters Unions of Pittsfield and Vicinity.

In October, 1905, Carpenters Union No. 444 of Pittsfield was reported to have a membership of 340; Carpenters No. 979 of Williamstown, 25; Carpenters No. 395 of Adams, 95; Carpenters No. 193 of North Adams, 65; Carpenters No. 370 of Lenox, 70; Carpenters No. 1427 of Lee, 26; Carpenters No. 1046 of Great Barrington, 70.

At that time it was reported to the Bureau that the locals herein stated lost in membership during the summer through clearance cards for other locals where wages were much higher. The wage in Great Barrington is \$2.80 for an eight hour day. The carpenters, locals were reported in excellent condition and to be working in harmony with the contractors. It was reported in October that effort would be made in the Spring of 1906 to raise the minimum wage to \$3 a day in order to hold enough men to do the work demanded.

Wage Scale, Carpenters and Joiners.

The Bureau in response to a communication to the Brockton Building Trades Council relating to

the wage scale and agreement of Carpenters and Joiners Union learns that an agreement existed until about two years ago with the Master Builders' Association, and that on trying to reach an agreement for another season the parties were unable to agree. The Union then took the stand that it cared for no agreement but would control its own men. A minimum price of \$3 a day of eight hours was established, below which price no member of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America within the jurisdiction of Local No. 624 of Brockton could work (unless a permit was granted) without violating his application, and if found guilty of violation penalty was provided. Any person disabled by infirmity, illness or old age is granted a permit to work at a price which he sets himself, or at any price he may obtain. If any contractor pays less than the minimum wage his men are notified to that effect and are supposed to act accordingly.

The Union claims that it is able now to call off men from any work without breaking any agreement and that the contractors are bound in no way. It was this matter of signing an agreement and being obliged to live up to the rules of such agreement that caused the dissension.

Convention of National Marine Engineers.

At the thirtieth annual convention of the National Marine Engineers Beneficial Association of the United States of America, held at Washington, D. C., January, 1905, it was reported that the total receipts were \$13,848, of which the per capita tax on 9,690 members amounted to \$12,113 and donations to \$1,510.—*Journal of Proceedings of the National Marine Engineers Beneficial Association of the United States of America.*

Convention of American Federation of Musicians.

The Eleventh Annual Convention of the American Federation of Musicians will be held in Faneuil Hall, Boston, May 21-26, 1906.

Among the important matters which will be brought up before this convention are the system of universal membership, a uniform initiation fee, and new legislation regarding army and navy bands. Universal membership, a plan submitted at the last convention by which any member traveling in any part of the country outside of the jurisdiction of his own local becomes a member of the nearest local, was submitted to a referendum vote. As the intent and purposes of this amendment have not been thoroughly understood, and returns have been received from only a small number of unions, the matter will come up for final action at the convention. Universal membership brings up the question of a uniform initiation fee. At the present time this fee ranges from \$5 to \$100, the larger amount prevailing in the larger cities.

Boston Musicians' Protective Association, Local No. 9, A. F. of M., has sent notices to all locals of the international, calling upon them to send their full quota of delegates, and settling forth the advantages of Boston as a convention city, in the interest of making this convention the banner one of the A. F. of M.

Massachusetts Federation of Labor.

The Twentieth Annual Convention of the Massachusetts State Branch, A. F. of L., was held in Pittsfield, in October, 1905. Among the many reso-

lutions adopted was the favoring of the abolition of child labor; opposing the attempt to repeal or weaken the Chinese Exclusion Act; the amendment to the Employer's Liability Act, wherein wage-earners engaged in hazardous occupations may have means of redress in case of accidents resulting in injury or death; favoring the barbers' license bill; protesting against establishment of trade schools on the ground that it is in the interest of manufacturers to turn out a surplus of ready-made operatives; shorter workday of nine hours for street railway employees; favoring the eight-hour day for all trades; reorganization of the factory inspection system; requesting Saturday half-holiday for the smaller cities and towns; and favoring the extension of women's label leagues.

It was reported that 34 unions were affiliated since the last convention, making a total of 227 affiliations with the State Branch. Four unions have withdrawn, having affiliated with the C. L. U. in their respective cities. Fifty-six unions were suspended on account of owing the per capita tax for a year or more, but some have re-affiliated.

The financial statement gives the total receipts as \$4,890, and the total expenditures as \$4,305, leaving a balance of \$585.—*Proceedings of the Twentieth Annual Convention.*

Convention of the United Textile Workers.

The Fifth Annual Convention of the United Textile Workers was held at New York in October, 1905. Among the resolutions adopted was one favoring the abolition of child labor in the United States, and authorizing the executive officers to "lend all the assistance in their power to any movement that has this object in view, and they are authorized to co-operate with any and all associations having for its object the abolition of child labor;" also a resolution favoring the eight-hour workday for textile workers on account of the hard, unhealthy, and long hours of labor that are gradually undermining the physical efficiency of its workers.

The Fall River strike, in 1904, reported as one of the greatest labor battles in the world, lasted for 26 weeks, involving 26,000 operatives. Donations to the amount of \$159,340.36 were received, of which \$33,692 was from the assessment levied by the A. F. of L. A vote of thanks was extended by the convention to organized labor for their generous response to the appeal of the operatives. The sum of \$85,000 was paid out *pro rata* to the five local unions involved, of which amount \$26,000 was distributed in the form of food, clothing, etc., among the non-union operatives who became involved.

It was reported that there were 128 unions affiliated (of which 33 are Massachusetts unions) as against 144 of last year, a decrease of 16 during the past year. Four new charters have been granted Massachusetts unions, while nine have seceded from the organization since the last convention.

The total receipts of the convention amounted to \$4,282, the per capita tax since the last convention amounting to \$3,569.—*Fifth Annual Convention of the United Textile Workers of America.*

Railroad Telegraphers.

It is reported that the Mutual Benefit Department of the Order of Railroad Telegraphers has been very successful from the first year of its establishment. The number of applications received was 6,756, of which 5,288 applications were approved.

The financial statement showed a cash balance on hand to the credit of the mortuary fund on Jan. 1, 1905, of \$107,067; the receipts from assessments during the year were \$99,371. Death claims were paid during the year to the amount of \$71,250; assessments refunded (on account of rejection of applications) to the amount of \$168.59; money credited to assessments was transferred to dues, by request of the remitter, to the amount of \$19.80, which left a balance, cash on hand, to the credit of the mortuary fund on Dec. 31, 1905, of \$134,999, a net gain for the year of \$27,932.

Practically every member of the Order now holds a certificate in this department, except those whose applications have been rejected, and many relatives of deceased members have been benefited.—*The Railroad Telegrapher, St. Louis, Mo., January, 1906.*

Wood Alcohol.

The following resolutions were indorsed and adopted by the International Convention of the Board of Painters, Decorators, and Paperhangers of America, at Memphis, Tenn., Dec., 1905; Connecticut Valley Conference, Nov. 12, 1905; Master House Painters and Decorators of Massachusetts, Jan. 9, 1906; New England Ophthalmological Society, Jan. 9, 1906:

Whereas, The internal revenue tax of \$2.07 per gallon on grain alcohol prevents the use of that material as a solvent for shellac and for cleaning and other purposes for which it is used by painters, and forces them to use wood alcohol which is not taxed, and

Whereas, The fumes given off by wood alcohol when used by painters, especially in a closed room, are dangerous to the health of the workers, causing severe injuries to their eyes, and in some cases blindness, and

Whereas, The revenue laws of practically every important country in the world, such as Great Britain, Germany, France, Austria, Switzerland and Italy, provide for the use, free of tax, of grain alcohol which has been rendered unfit for beverage purposes, and

Whereas, Grain alcohol is much superior to wood alcohol for industrial purposes, and is entirely free from injury to the workers using it, and with the tax removed would be sold for about one-third of the cost of the inferior and dangerous wood alcohol, and

Whereas, There is no reason why this country cannot adopt the same policy of allowing grain alcohol which has been made unfit for internal use to be used without payment of the tax imposed on beverage alcohol, which has proved so successful in all foreign countries.

Resolved, That we hereby demand the enactment of legislation which will protect the workers using alcohol from injurious effects of the poisonous wood alcohol, by enabling them to use untaxed denatured grain alcohol, which would be much cheaper, and far better for all industrial purposes; and

Resolved, That we urge upon the public the necessity for bringing this matter to the attention of their Congressmen, so as to secure legislation at the present session of Congress which will make unnecessary the use of material so dangerous to the health of the painters and other workers of the country.

Trade Union Schools.

Education is regarded by all as the essential to progress and success, and this fact is equally applicable to the trade union movement. Much as has

been said and done regarding the trade unions and the trade union movement, it is, nevertheless, true that there is not as wide or general a knowledge and understanding of the history, the struggles, the methods, and the work of our movement as should be. The misinformation upon trade union life, activity, and purposes is still too general and profound. And to this is largely due the unfair criticism and opposition of opponents, as well as the inability of a number of our trade unionists often to defend themselves, the organizations with which they are connected, and the faith that is within them. Their confidence in and their judgment of trade union work and objects is, therefore, sometimes weakened or perverted, and they become easy victims to antagonists or sophists.

I would recommend that our central bodies establish in their respective localities trade union schools where at least the elementary principles of the trade union movement may be taught; where a correct understanding of trade union history, struggles, and achievements may be demonstrated and impressed upon students; where the conditions of the workers of the past may be made known, and what marvellous changes and improvements have been gradually yet effectively wrought in the life of labor, and where may be instilled the knowledge that only by associated efforts, the honorable performance of duty, and by constant application and persistency can labor work out its salvation day by day in the natural development and evolution toward a better life; that progress is made, not by leaps and jumps, but by the natural, the rational process of associated effort.

Coupled with such schools and as a part of their instruction, the young boys and girls of our fellow workmen would have the opportunity of coming to an understanding of the ennobling work and aspirations to which their elders are devoting their energies. With the establishment of trade union schools, leaflets, cards, tracts, elementary in their character, and books for advanced classes, could be prepared and issued from the office of the American Federation of Labor and furnished at cost.

This suggestion, if taken up with energy and intelligence by the central bodies throughout the country, will open up vast opportunities for good and be helpful to a very material extent in preparing our fellow workers to meet and overcome their antagonists and more readily fit them for the intelligent and stout advocacy of true trade unionism, the light and hope of American labor.—*Report of Pres. Samuel Gompers, Twenty-fifth Annual Convention, Pittsburgh, Pa., 1905.*

Street and Electric Railway Employees.

From *The Motorman and Conductor* of January, 1906, some interesting facts are gleaned regarding the association which the journal officially represents.

During the year 1905 an increase in wages was secured by 53 local divisions of the Street and Electric Railway Employees of America. The wage increase affected, directly, over 11,000 members, and aggregated, approximately, \$300,000. In several instances the success of the Association extended to workmen other than Division members, which would add to the aggregate increase of wage, as well as to the number of men benefited.

The year 1905 was characterized by one strike and two lockouts. The strike involved three local divisions, with a membership of 169 men.

The amount paid upon death claims during the year was \$12,900, or an average of \$1,075 per month; \$400 was paid upon disability claims, making a total for death and disability claims of \$13,300, which represented 129 deaths and four total disabilities of members who were in full benefits.

The per capita tax is 10 cents a month, or \$1.20 a year, and it required the full year's per capita tax on 11,083 members to meet the death and disability payments alone.

The Defence Fund was established in May, 1903, and is supported by the payment of quarterly assessments, or \$1 a year a member. This fund is permitted to be used only as a benefit for striking and locked-out members, and is disbursed in payments of \$5 a week a member during the period of enforced idleness resulting from strikes or lockouts.

During the past year the sum of \$12,005 in strike and lockout benefits has been paid from this fund, which would equal contributions of 12,500 members, 2,401 weeks aggregate time of strikes and lockouts, and the maintenance of 44 members an entire year at \$5 a week.

Convention of Painters, Decorators, and Paperhangers.

The Ninth Biennial Convention of the Brotherhood of Painters, Decorators, and Paperhangers of America was held at Memphis, Tenn., in December, 1905. Among the resolutions adopted was one providing for the creation and establishment of a home for old and disabled members of the craft; a resolution demanding the enactment of legislation which will "protect the workers using alcohol from the injurious effects of the poisonous wood alcohol by enabling them to use untaxed denaturized grain alcohol, which would be much cheaper and far better for all industrial purposes;" a resolution condemning government by injunction, and one maintaining that the Chinese Exclusion Act should be enlarged and extended so as to permanently exclude from the United States and its insular territory all classes of the Japanese and Korean race other than those exempted by the present terms of that Act.

It was reported that the number of local unions embraced in the international on Nov. 1, 1905, was 838, with a total membership of 56,004, an increase of 338 local unions and 26,219 members since Nov. 1, 1901. It was also reported that there are 42 Massachusetts towns as yet unorganized, which are able to support a union.

The financial report showed the total receipts for four years (Nov. 1, 1901–Nov. 1, 1905) to be \$667,342, of which the capitation tax, initiation, journal, and reinstatement fees amounted to \$605,763; general members dues, \$6,543; local union donations, \$7,712. The total expenditures amounted to \$571,761, of which the A. F. of L. tax amounted to \$12,075; donations to local unions, \$76,412, and death and disability claims, \$164,499.—*The Painter and Decorator, La Fayette, Ind.*

New York City Unions.

The disaffection in New York is something that every loyal member of the I. U. must regret. This internal quarrel, in which a considerable proportion of the entire membership has defied the parent body, will, whatever the final issue, leave scars that only years and years can obliterate.

We feel that the little we have to say can not be honestly subjected to that kind of criticism that has

prevailed more or less generally since the first. For we have consistently avoided taking any part in the discussion of this question of fireproofing, and we believed we had good reasons for so doing.

So aside from the general question, we are of the opinion that no set of people are more pleased with the position taken by our New York City unions than that clique that for years has secretly sowed the seed of rebellion to make of New York, which, as one observer, struck with its cosmopolitan character, has said, seems to belong not to Americans but to mankind, a walled city through whose gates none may enter who is without the shibboleth of localism.

Our New York members, and we are all proud of the splendid position these unions have occupied in the movement, have undertaken a task that the combined employers of the trade would hesitate to assume. The challenge they have hurled should not have been made without the fullest weighing of things, the fullest computation of resources.

We can not conclude this without saying a word or two of the splendid loyalty of unions Nos. 37, 74, and 84. They stand true, turning a deaf ear to all blandishments. The law relative to fireproofing Union No. 37 has most carefully observed from the first day of its operation, refusing even to sign the local agreement because it was again made to contain the fireproofing clause, the elimination of which that law required.

In acting as they have done the subordinate unions of New York City have removed from present consideration at least the general question. The question now is one of loyalty, and with no other question, before or after the fact, has the I. U. to do. The parent body has been openly defied, and that defiance it must meet and conquer; that is, while the present law remains as it is.—*The Bricklayer and Mason, Indianapolis, Ind., December, 1905.*

Naval and Military Bands Competing with Civilian Musicians.

The following bill has been introduced in the 59th Congress, House of Representatives, and has been referred to the Committee on Naval Affairs:

A BILL RELATING TO THE BAND OF THE UNITED STATES MARINE CORPS, AND TO COMPETITION OF NAVAL AND MILITARY BANDS WITH CIVILIAN MUSICIANS.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the band of the United States Marine Corps shall consist of one leader, with the pay and allowances of a captain in the Marine Corps; one second leader, with the pay and allowances of a second lieutenant in the Marine Corps; thirty first-class musicians, whose pay shall be one hundred dollars per month; and thirty second-class musicians, whose pay shall be seventy-five dollars per month; each of said first and second class musicians to have the allowances of a sergeant in the Marine Corps, said first and second class musicians to have no increased pay for length of service: Provided, however, That in the future members of the Marine Band or of other naval or military bands shall not engage in business in competition with civilian bands or musicians.

The American Federation of Musicians in the International Musician of January urges the support and endorsement of all locals to the bill, to wit:

" Let every local of the A. F. of M. in the United States endorse this bill, and send a letter to the Congressman from that jurisdiction and the United States Senators representing the State asking them to support the bill. Furthermore, get the central bodies in the jurisdiction to endorse the bill, and have the Secretary of such central bodies send letters to the Congressmen and Senators asking their support. . . .

" No one can gainsay the justness of the bill. That the government should fully equip military bands at the expense of the people, and then place them in direct competition with civilians is inexcusable.

" The late Senator Mark Hanna was a most cautious man, and never expressed himself unless he understood the subject. When the claims of the civilian musician on this question were explained to him, he remarked that 'the position of the civilian musician is impregnable, and such a system infamous.' If the 40,000 members of the A. F. of M. in the United States will do their duty this infamy of the government taking the taxes out of the pockets of a citizen and using them to train and equip a soldier or marine to compete with him for a livelihood, already assured to the soldier or marine, this parody on government will cease forevermore. . . ."

Dispute in the Building Trades— St. Louis.

The Building Trades of St. Louis being involved in a dispute which affects all trades, the Secretary of the Building Trades Council of St. Louis and Vicinity issued the following statement on Feb. 23, 1906, giving in brief the facts of the controversy:

The Building Trades Council of St. Louis and Vicinity is composed of all trades except the bricklayers and a dual union of colored hod carriers. Three-fourths of all St. Louis hod carriers are affiliated with the B. T. C., and efforts have been exerted to have the dual union of colored hod carriers join the B. T. C.

On Jan. 22, the B. T. C. was notified by a joint committee of journeymen and master bricklayers to immediately cease efforts to secure the affiliation of the dual hod carriers.

This the Building Trades Council absolutely refused to do, and on Feb. 15 at a mass meeting of the bricklayers it was decided to refuse material from B. T. C. hod carriers, and the following morning all bricklayers refused to return to work unless the B. T. C. hod carriers were removed from the job.

Several contractors proceeded at once to replace the B. T. C. hod carriers with colored hod carriers from the dual union, and the situation became so serious that the B. T. C. was forced to act in self defence. Consequently, on Feb. 21, the B. T. C. withdrew all trades from jobs upon which the bricklayers would not receive material from the B. T. C. hod carriers.

The bricklayers have issued a statement under the heading "Stay Away Notice" that is not a statement of the facts. They claim that the B. T. C. desires to force the bricklayers into the Council, which is not true, as such has not been the intention of the B. T. C. Their statement conveys the impression that the B. T. C. is striking against the bricklayers, which is not the case, because the bricklayers began the fight and forced the B. T. C. to act in self defence.

It is not the desire of the B. T. C. to force the bricklayers into the Council, neither will we attempt

to dictate the policy to be pursued by the bricklayers' union, and we insist upon the same privileges being accorded our body.

The Building Trades Council of St. Louis demands that the bricklayers remain neutral, attend to their own matters and keep hands off the B. T. C. affairs. If this be done, and they accept material from Building Trades Council hod carriers, as they have always done in the past, there will be no further trouble.

Proposed Benefits—Carriage and Wagon Workers.

The plan of the Carriage and Wagon Workers International Union to adopt sick, total disability, out-of-work, and death benefits is at present under vote of the different unions.

The Sick Benefit plan is as follows: Any member who has been a contributing member for not less than six consecutive months and who does not owe 13 weeks' dues and who is not under any of the restrictions specified in these laws shall be entitled when taken sick or disabled, in such manner as to prevent him from attending his usual vocation, to a sum of \$5.25 a week after the first week's sickness or disability; provided that such sickness or disability has not been caused by intemperance, debauchery, or other immoral conduct. No member shall be entitled to receive sick benefits for a longer period than 13 weeks in any one year, commencing the first day of the second week of sickness or disability, whether it has been continuous or periodical, and will not be entitled to benefits for sickness or disability for any fractional part of a week nor for the first week of any sickness or disability. The sickness or disability shall date from the time the member reports the same to the officer of the union authorized by the local to receive the same.

A member to be entitled to the Total Disability Benefit must not have owed 13 weeks' dues and must have been a member in good standing for at least one consecutive year next preceding his total disability. For a continuous membership of one to five years \$100 will be paid; from five to 10 years, \$150; from 10 to 15 years, \$175; and for 15 years or more, \$200.

The Death Benefit entitles a beneficiary member who shall not have been in arrears for 13 weeks' dues and assessments at the time of his death and shall have been a member in good standing for six months preceding his death to the following amounts: If the member has been such for at least six consecutive months a sum of \$50 to be paid; one year, \$100; five years, \$150; 10 years, \$175; and 15 years or more, \$200.

The Out-of-Work Benefit entitles any member of this union who may be out of work through inability to secure the same, providing said inability be not the result of drunkenness or other misconduct, to a relief from the payment of dues for a period of not more than 13 weeks in any one year, whether such idleness be continuous or otherwise, the year beginning from the first date in which such relief is given. This shall not apply to members voluntarily laying off, those not working at the trade, those following another calling as a means of livelihood, or those temporarily or continuously employed at some other trade or business.

To be entitled to this relief a member must have been an active member in good standing for at least six months previous to getting out of work, and must not have owed more than six weeks' dues at the time of getting out of work.

A member in receipt of strike or sick benefits shall not be entitled to the out-of-work relief while such strike or sickness continues, but shall pay his dues out of these benefits received. Any member, however, who has drawn 13 weeks' continuous sick

benefits shall, if he continues sick, be entitled to this out-of-work benefit for a period of 13 weeks thereafter, less the number of weeks out-of-work benefits he has already drawn within a year.—*Carriage and Wagon Workers Journal, October, 1905.*

RECENT LEGAL LABOR DECISIONS.

Strike as Excuse for Delay. The Court of Civil Appeals of Texas, in the case of *Sterling v. St. Louis, Iron Mountain, & Southern Railway Co.*, 86 S. W. 655, held that a carrier is liable for injury to cattle by delay in transit where the delay is caused by interference of strikers in the movement of trains only when it fails to exercise reasonable diligence to expedite the shipment.

Injunction—Boycott. The Court of Appeals of Maryland held in the case of *My Maryland Lodge No. 186 of Machinists et al. v. Adt*, 100 Md. 238, that the right of an individual to carry on his business in such a manner as he sees fit will be protected by injunction restraining parties from combining to boycott such individual and from distributing circulars threatening those of the public who deal with him with the ill-will of organized labor.

Discharge of Employee. The Supreme Court of North Carolina held in the case of *Holder v. Mfg. Co.*, 138 N. C. 308, that an action against the defendant for procuring plaintiff's employer to discharge him, plaintiff cannot recover where his contract was only to work by the day; that the fact that defendant company and plaintiff's employer had the same officers does not make the defendant liable for acts done by its officers in the discharge of their duties towards the other company, though they act in that respect by reason of information derived in the discharge of similar duties as officers of such company.

Trade Union Coercion—Right to Work. The United States Supreme Court has dismissed the appeal from the decision of the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts in the case of *Berry v. Donovan*.* Donovan, the business agent of the Boot and Shoe Workers Union, induced Berry's employers to dismiss him because he refused to join the union. Berry brought suit, and secured a verdict of \$1,500 against Donovan in the Massachusetts courts. The decision by the United States Supreme Court establishes the liability of union officers for injury to a non-union employee where he is deprived of work because of non-membership in the union.

Master and Servant—Factory Laws. In the recent case of *Chambers v. Wampanoag Mills*, 75 N. E. 1093, the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts held that the failure of a master to promulgate a system of inspection in its mills is evidence of negligence, in case of injury to a servant through want of inspection; that a servant does not assume the risk of negligence on the part of the master in the furnishing of instrumentalities for doing the

work; that whether a weaver employed to run looms, who was injured by being struck in the eye by a shuttle which flew upwards from one of the looms, assumed the risk or was guilty of contributory negligence, was held, under the evidence a question for the jury.

Conspiracy. The Supreme Court of North Carolina held in the case of *State v. Van Pelt*, 136 N. C. 633, that an indictment charging that certain persons notified the prosecutor that he would not be considered in sympathy with organized labor if he employed others than union men, nor if he retained non-union men with whom he had already contracted a year in advance, and upon refusal of prosecutor to discharge the non-union men and not to agree to employ only union men, a notice was made in a newspaper that at a meeting of carpenters and joiners the attitude of the prosecutor was declared unfair toward organized labor and so listed, and that no union carpenter would work on any material from the shop of the prosecutor after a given date, does not constitute a conspiracy.

Employer's Liability—Mines—Violation of Statute. The Supreme Court of Illinois held in the case of *Kellyville Coal Co. v. Strine*, 75 N. E. 375, that under Laws 1899, pp. 315, 317, §§ 16, 18, requiring mines to be examined and dangerous working places to be marked, so as to notify men to keep out, and further requiring mine managers to provide a sufficient supply of props and timbers to secure the roof of the mine, a miner's contributory negligence in going into a room which he knows to be dangerous is no defence to an action by him for injuries, based on the mine owner's failure to comply with the statute. That under § 33, p. 324, giving a right of action for injuries caused by any wilful violation of the provisions of the act, any conscious violation of the statute is a "wilful" violation, although not accompanied by an evil intent.

Factories and Shops Acts—Weekly Half-holiday. The Supreme Court of Victoria held in the recent case of *In re Hooker*, 1905, V. L. R. 680, that there is no power under the Factories and Shops Acts to make a regulation prescribing and enforcing the observance of a weekly half-holiday by the keepers of shops of the classes mentioned in the Fourth Schedule to the Factories and Shops Act 1890 (No. 1091). [Fourth schedule includes chemists' shops, coffee-houses, confectioners, eating-houses, fish and oyster shops, fruit and vegetable shops, restaurants, tobacconists' shops, booksellers' and news agents' shops.] In Chief Justice Madden's decision the history of "early closing" and "weekly half-holiday" legislation is traced and discussed.

* See Labor Bulletin No. 36, June, 1905, p. 146.

Discharge of Servant for Disobedience. In the recent case of *Costet v. Jeantet et al.*, 95 N. Y. Supp. 638, the Supreme Court of New York, Appellate Division, First Department, held that where a contract of employment required the servant, when not traveling, to be at the employer's store and assist therein, it was not a good defence to an action for unlawful discharge that the servant disobeyed orders to attend the store at 8 o'clock in the morning, and refused to attend at that hour, or earlier than 9 o'clock. Judge Patterson in rendering his decision said in part: "Where an order is given to an employee, and he disobeys it, his employer having an undoubted right to direct the times and manner in which service shall be performed, provided there is no specific agreement with relation thereto, the right of the employer to discharge for such disobedience follows necessarily. If this were not so . . . the position of employer and employee would be reversed. The defendants had the right to control their own business and to give proper directions to their employees with respect to the time of their attendance. Where a servant defies the proper direction of the master, he sets to his fellow servants an example of insubordination that may seriously affect that master's business."

Employer's Liability—Assumption of Risk. In the recent case of *Manning v. Excelsior Laundry Co.*, 75 N. E. 254, before the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, it appeared that plaintiff, a young girl, while at work on a laundry mangle, was injured by having her hand drawn between a roller and a hot cylinder as she was removing from the roller one of the pieces which had caught thereon. There was nothing to show she understood or appreciated how fast the machine was revolving. She had seen others remove pieces from the roller in a similar manner while the mangle was in operation, and had received no instruction or warning as to the danger. The Court held that she did not assume the risk of such injury as a matter of law. Justice Morton, delivering the opinion, said in part: "An employer cannot stand by, we think, and see persons in his employ doing things in the course of their employment for his benefit which may result in injury to them if they are not properly warned or instructed, and escape liability on the ground that they had not been told to do what they were doing. By allowing the things to be done without objection, he must be held to have assented to the construction thus given in effect by his employees to the scope of their duties."

Constitutional Law—Free Speech—Injunction—Boycott. In the recent case of *Jordahl v. Hayda et al.*, 82 Pac. 1079, the California Court of Appeal, Third District, held (1) that the constitutional guaranty of free speech does not authorize members of a labor union by threats, intimidation, etc., to induce prospective patrons of a place of business to refrain from patronizing same; the proprietor being also guaranteed the right by the same instrument to acquire, possess, and protect property, and to possess and obtain safety and happiness; (2) that in an action to restrain members of a labor union from boycotting and picketing plaintiff's restaurant, findings that defendants had been guilty of acts of intimidation in threatening prospective customers of the restaurant, and had interfered with them, driven them away, or prevented

them from patronizing plaintiff, were sustained by evidence of conversations, etc., had by defendants with such customers, without evidence that defendants had exercised physical force or actual violence toward such customers, etc.; (3) that a decree enjoining defendants from stationing themselves in a doorway of plaintiff's restaurant or on the sidewalk in front thereof, and from interfering with plaintiff's business by intimidation, insults, or threats to his patrons, thereby inducing persons not to patronize plaintiff, and especially enjoining defendants from in any manner interfering with plaintiff's business by means of threats or intimidation of any kind or nature directed against plaintiff's patrons, and from interfering by means of threats and intimidation with any person that may be working for plaintiff or may desire to work for him, was not objectionable for indefiniteness and uncertainty as to the acts defendants were enjoined from performing.

Boycott—Conspiracy. In the recent case of *Purington et al. v. Hinchliff*, 76 N. E. 47, which was appealed from the Appellate Court, First District of Illinois, to the Supreme Court of Illinois, the judgment of the lower Court was affirmed. It appeared that an agreement was made between the Masons' and Builders' and the Brick Manufacturers' Associations of Chicago, that members of the former would buy brick only from members of the latter association, and that members of the manufacturers' association would give to members of the Masons' and Builders' Association a trade discount of one dollar a thousand brick; that on all brick sold to purchasers outside the latter association, the manufacturers would pay into their treasury one dollar a thousand and the fund thus created would be divided semi annually between the two associations. Hinchliff was the principal competitor of the members of the Brick Manufacturers' Association in Cook County, was at one time a member of the masons' and builders' organization and had made efforts to join the manufacturers' association without success. These associations together with the Bricklayers' Union employed men to see that rules formulated to make the agreement between them effective were observed. Evidence showed that Hinchliff's business was interfered with and injured by their men. The Court held that no person or combination of persons can legally, by direct or indirect means, obstruct or interfere with another in the conduct of his lawful business, and any loss wilfully caused by such interference will give the party injured a right of action for all damages sustained; that all parties to a conspiracy to ruin the business of another because of his refusal to do some act against his will or judgment are liable for all overt acts illegally done pursuant to such conspiracy and for the subsequent loss, whether they were active participants or not; that an agreement not to use, purchase, or lay bricks made by any person who does not subscribe to the rules of a builders' association, made for the purpose of injuring the business of such person, is illegal, and the parties thereto are liable for acts done in pursuance thereof and to the damage of the injured person.

Injunction—Proceedings for Contempt. In the recent case of *Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Ry. Co. v. Gee et al.*, 140 Fed. 153,* it appeared that in

* For former opinion (139 Fed. 582) see Labor Bulletin No. 39, p. 31.

May, 1904, a lockout was ordered at the shops of the railway company at Ft. Madison, Ia., because employees were about to enter upon a strike. Violence followed; the business of the company was interfered with and its property injured. A restraining order was issued commanding defendants and all former employees to absolutely desist from interference, whether by assault, physical violence, or intimidation, or abusive language, such as would put new employees in mental fear. The United States Circuit Court, Southern District Iowa, E. D., held that defendants were guilty of contempt of court in wilfully and persistently violating an injunction restraining them from intimidating or interfering with employees of complainant. Judge McPherson in rendering his decision said in part: "Employees of any corporation can strike singly, collectively, or as a union at any time, whether they have good reason for doing so or not. . . . The company can discharge their men with or without reason at any time the company so elects. . . . Laboring men have a perfect right to organize themselves into unions, and have their offices, and meet in secret, and attempt thereby to better their conditions by shortening hours or increasing their wages . . . but when men are out by reason of a 'lockout' or by reason of a strike, the places once occupied by them are no longer their places. The

company, then, has the right to employ whomsoever it pleases, upon such terms as it may agree upon with the new men, and it has a perfect right to employ men who do not belong to the union, as well as to employ men who do belong to the union. This country recognizes no legal difference between men who belong to organizations, or lodges, or churches, and men who belong to neither. This is a free country and must be kept so, and every man, whether he belongs to any organization, church, or lodge, or does not, has the right to work for whomsoever he pleases, upon such terms as may be agreed upon, and such men must be and will be protected. . . . A man is not a scab who engages in honest employment, seeking to live an upright life and earn a livelihood for his family, school his children, and conduct himself as a decent citizen; and such use of such epithets becomes tiresome to decent people. . . . Three of these defendants, at least, have been contemptuous in the very extreme ever since the restraining order was issued more than a year ago. . . . At the hearing last Spring the term 'picketing' was used by all the witnesses and by the accused hundreds and hundreds of times. Now it is not called 'picketing,' but the same acts of intimidation and opprobrious epithets are called 'reporting,' the pretence being that their acts could be justified by changing the name."

EXCERPTS

Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest.

Repeal of Law Licensing Barbers, Kansas.

Chapter 70 of the Session Laws of 1905 of the State of Kansas relates to the practice of the barber profession. It repeals certain sections of Chapter 70 of the Session Laws of 1903 which regulated the practice of barbers and provided for the licensing of members of the profession.

Building Trades — New York, 1906.

The Bureau was favored with the following statement, on Feb. 24, 1906, in response to its communication to the Secretary of the Building Trades Employers' Association of New York City:

"New agreements have been made in all the building trades except the Plumbers, Pipe Coverers and the Mosaic Workers, the agreements continuing for periods from one to three years. One of the first objects of the Association was to make the various trade agreements expire on January 1 instead of May 1, as formerly, so that wages might be settled and conditions as stable as possible before the opening up of Spring work. This object has now been accomplished and all the trade agreements expire on the first of the year.

In reference to the outlook for the coming year, the members of the Association are generally confident that labor conditions will be satisfactory and that there will be a large amount of building. The one cloud on the situation at the present time is in the iron trade, where the Housesmiths' Union has been on strike since January 1 for an increase of

wages from \$4.50 to \$5 a day, which demand has been refused. The places of the strikers have been very largely filled, however, and the iron work is proceeding satisfactorily without the recognition of any union, and with a general intention on the part of our iron contractors not to again enter into an agreement with any union of housesmiths or to ever again recognize a union on their work."

The Emigrant Industrial Savings Bank, New York.

The Emigrant Industrial Savings Bank was an outgrowth of the Irish Industrial Emigrant Society, organized in 1841 for the purpose of aiding and protecting Irish immigrants. The society was incorporated in 1844. It maintains a free labor bureau at the Barge Office and affords the immigrant the opportunity of buying drafts payable in all parts of Ireland. The society has always maintained representatives at the immigrant stations for the protection of newly arrived Irishmen.

The savings bank was organized in 1850. Most of the trustees of the emigrant society are also trustees of the bank, so the interest of the two institutions are to a large extent identical.

Mr. Mulry, the new president, has been identified with the charitable work of the city for over twenty-five years. He is president of the Superior Council of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, a member of the Central Council of the Charity Organization Society, and first vice-president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

He is also a member of the governing boards of the New York Catholic Protectory, the Mission of the Immaculate Virgin, and one of the State hospitals for the insane.—*Charities and the Commons*, Feb. 17, 1906.

Child Labor—National Movement.

The question of child labor was brought before the 59th Congress of the United States in the form of two resolutions, which follow, the first submitted by Mr. Augustus P. Gardner of Massachusetts, and the second by Mr. William S. McNary.

1. *Resolved*, That the Secretary of Commerce and Labor be, and he is hereby, requested to investigate and report on the condition of child labor under fourteen years wherever employed and to furnish to the House of Representatives a complete statement as to the various State laws regulating child labor and the effectiveness of their enforcement.

2. *Resolved*, That the Secretary of Commerce and Labor be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed to inquire into the conditions surrounding the employment of child labor in the United States; the ages at which children are employed in factories, workshops, and mercantile establishments; the duration of a day's labor; whether or not age and schooling certificates are filed with the employers of children, and to make an early report of his findings to this House, together with all statistics and data that may be available regarding the character of such employment of children and the wages paid to children.

Proposed Child Labor Law for Georgia.

To be entitled an Act to regulate the employment of children in factories and manufacturing establishments in this State and to provide for the punishment of violations of the regulations prescribed.

Section 1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Georgia, and it is hereby enacted by authority of the same, That no child under the age of twelve (12) years shall be employed at labor in or about any factory or manufacturing establishment within this State, unless a widowed mother or aged or disabled father is dependent upon the labor of such child, or in case a child is an orphan and has no other means of support.

No child under the age of ten (10) years shall be so employed under any circumstances.

Sec. 2. Be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That it shall be unlawful for any owner, superintendent, or other person acting in behalf of a factory or manufacturing establishment to hire or to employ any such child unless there is first provided and placed on file in the office of such an employer an affidavit signed by the parent or guardian or person standing in parental relation thereto, certifying to the age and date of birth of said child. Any person knowingly furnishing a false certificate of the age of such child shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor.

Sec. 3. Be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That no child under fourteen years of age shall be employed or labor in any factory or manufacturing establishment within this State between the hours of seven P.M. and six A.M.

Sec. 4. Be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the first of September, 1907, no child under fourteen (14) years of age shall be employed at labor in any factory or manufacturing establishment in this State unless

he or she can write his or her name and simple sentences in the English language.

Sec. 5. Be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That any person, corporation or representative of such corporation, who violates any of the provisions of this Act or who suffers and permits any child to be employed in violation of its provisions, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor.

Sec. 6. Be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That all Acts and parts of Acts in conflict with this Act are hereby repealed.

AMENDMENT.

Amend by inserting the word "totally" in the first section before the word "dependent," so that the first section, when amended, shall read:

"Section 1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Georgia, and it is hereby enacted by authority of the same, that no child under the age of twelve (12) years shall be employed at labor in or about any factory or manufacturing establishment within this State, unless a widowed mother or aged or disabled father is totally dependent upon the labor of such child, or in case a child is an orphan and has no other means of support."

Proposed Child Labor Law for Maryland.*

A bill relating to child labor and factory regulations, and providing for a sliding scale up to January 1, 1908, was prepared and introduced in the House of Delegates, Maryland, by Frederick T. Dorton. On February 19, the bill was in the hands of the Judiciary Committee. It is stated that the glass house people and the cotton duck industries are opposing the bill, as well as those persons in the canning industries, it being alleged that in the canning industry children are employed as young as seven years.

The bill provides for the amendment of Section 4 of Article 100 of the Code of Public General Laws of Maryland, so as to forbid the employment under any conditions, after July 1, 1906, of any child under 12 years of age in any mill, factory, workshop, office, restaurant, hotel, apartment house, store, telephone or telegraph office, or other establishment or business. It also provides for the addition of nine new sections to the article.

The following are the important provisions of these additional sections: Every person or corporation employing any child between the ages of 12 and 16 years must keep on file and accessible to the proper authorities an employment permit for every such child employed and a complete list of all such children employed; and in factories, workshops, mills, or messenger service a duplicate list must be conspicuously posted. The employment permits, for employments in Baltimore, are to be issued by the Maryland Bureau of Statistics and Information; and in other localities by health officers of the counties or cities. Every permit must contain proper evidence of the age of the child; also a description of the child, giving name, height, complexion, and color of eyes and hair; together with a certificate of ability to read and write simple English and of physical fitness for the employment proposed. Any person authorized to sign an employment permit who knowingly certifies to any false statement therein shall be fined not more than \$50. The certificate is to be the property of the child for whom it is made; and, if not claimed by the child upon leaving the employment designated,

* We have learned, just before going to print, that a child labor and inspection law has been enacted.

must be returned to the issuer, the penalty for violation of this provision being a fine of \$10. A duplicate of each employment permit must be kept on file by the issuer. Fines for violations of this Act are fixed at not less than \$5 nor more than \$50 for the original offence and a like sum for each day that unlawful employment continues after the employer has been notified by the proper authorities. Failure to produce to an inspector or an attendance officer of the public schools any employment permit or list shall be *prima facie* evidence of illegal employment of any child for whom such permit or list is not produced. The Governor of the State is authorized to appoint six inspectors to carry out the provisions of the Act. They are to work under the Chief of the Maryland Bureau of Statistics and Information whose duty it shall be to see that the provisions of this Act are enforced. On and after January 1, 1907, the minimum age for children employed under this Act shall be raised to 13 years, and on January 1, 1908, to 14 years. The Act does not include farm labor. The inspectors under the Act are to receive \$900 each yearly, exclusive of traveling and other necessary expenses; and a yearly appropriation of \$8,000 is provided to carry out the provisions of the Act.

National Metal Trades Association— Amalgamation.

In February, the Bureau wrote the Secretary of the National Metal Trades Association for information in regard to the amalgamation of the Local Associations with the National. The reply to our communication is summarized below.

"The amalgamation or merger of the Local Metal Trades Association with the National Metal Trades Association you refer to is the result of a belief on the part of our Administrative Council that the interest of our members could best be preserved by the amalgamation or merging of the various unaffiliated Local Metal Trades Associations with us.

As soon as all Local Metal Trades Associations in existence or about to be created are merged with us, then the position of the National Metal Trades Association, as far as regards the handling of any unjust demands on any of our members by labor organizations, will be practically invulnerable.

We have merged with us up to this time the Local Metal Trades Associations in the following cities:

Chicago, Ill.	St. Louis, Mo.
Buffalo, N. Y.	Boston, Mass.
New York, N. Y.	Cincinnati, O.

These will hereafter be known as branches of the National Metal Trades Association.

In addition to the above, we are at the present time making arrangements to merge with us the Local Metal Trades Associations in the cities of Cleveland and Philadelphia.

It will no doubt interest you to know that experience has demonstrated to the officials in charge of the above mentioned Branch Associations that by reason of their having merged with us they have demonstrated to their members the three following vitally interesting results:

1. An increase of their membership.
2. A decrease of their operating expense.
3. The practice of greater caution on the part of the Local Business Agent.

In conclusion I will add that I am confident that the day will come when the members of the National Metal Trades Association will be immune from

strikes by reason of the very existence of, and their membership in, the National Metal Trades Association."

The Platform of the National Metal Trades Association.

1. We recognize that the interests of both employer and employee should be properly protected, and that these interests must at all times rest on the fact that employer and employee are both interested in the results of the work in which they are engaged.

2. We recognize that any restriction of the enterprise of the employer or the energy of the employees, resulting in depreciation of the quality or quantity of product, is detrimental to the mutual interest of both.

3. We recognize the justice of the recommendation made by the Coal Strike Commission appointed by President Roosevelt, "That no person shall be refused employment, or in any way discriminated against, on account of membership or nonmembership in any labor organization; and that there shall be no discrimination against, or interference with, any employee who is not a member of any labor organization by members of such organization."

4. We recognize that there should be no restriction to the opportunities that may be offered to deserving boys to acquire a trade, and that employers and employees should join in their efforts to instruct such apprentices, provided they be employed under written contracts for a specific time of service.

5. We recognize that sympathetic strikes, lockouts and boycotts are relics of barbarism, because they result in no permanent benefit to either side of a contest, and inflict unjust and unfair injury on the public, who depend on our joint efforts for their comfort and welfare.

6. We recognize that as the realization of mutual benefits represented in profits and earnings from our joint labors depends largely on the employer finding a suitable market for the product, he can best determine the methods of work, the selection of employees, and the character of work to be performed by each.—*Open Shop, March, 1906.*

Recreation for Panama Canal Employees.

The committee appointed by the Isthmian Canal Commission to visit the Canal Zone and recommend ways and means for the recreation of employees engaged in the actual work of construction recommends the establishment of club-houses, athletic fields, Sunday excursions, sea bathing, and Saturday half-holidays.

The committee considered the building of club-houses at suitable points along the entire route of the greatest importance. These would be of three classes: Class A, designed for recreation of army officers, engineers, architects, and employees who are graduates of colleges or technical schools, or who have received such a measure of higher or professional education as would cause them to be of common tastes and sympathies; Class B, for skilled workmen, and Class C for unskilled laborers. Club-houses would include in their features swimming-pool and shower baths, reading and writing rooms, bowling alleys, billiard and pool room, buffet, card room, and social hall.

Club-houses for Class A and Class B should be erected at once at points along the route where there is or will be a considerable concentration of those classes of employees. Class C houses should be erected wherever the work of construction is

most active. If such places are to be shifted from time to time, club-houses of this class should be constructed so that they could be taken apart and moved from place to place.

The committee very strongly recommended the establishment of the Saturday half-holiday and in this connection said in part: "In talking with employees of all classes there was brought to our attention a prevalent and spontaneous desire for the Saturday half-holiday. . . . We know of no other one proposition, outside of those considerations relating to shelter and food, so well calculated to make the mass of workers on the Isthmus contented and happy as the Saturday half-holiday. The climate of the Isthmus is such as to make this weekly half-holiday important not only for recreation, but, what is more important still, for health. The Saturday half-holiday will . . . afford a distinct opportunity to bring together for outdoor sports and other recreation employees from places scattered along the route, thus encouraging a feeling of communal interest throughout the zone in the social life of all its communities and in the prosecution of the enterprise that binds them all together in a common purpose."

A Tuberculosis Campaign in Virginia.

The following recommendations made by the Medical Society of Virginia indicate the character and the importance of the crusade which that influential organization is planning to institute against tuberculosis: "We recommend that the members of this society go home with the idea of individually pushing this campaign against tuberculosis and that they discuss this problem at the next meeting of their local medical societies, urging the town and county authorities to pass such regulations as an anti-spitting law, the compulsory registration of all tuberculosis cases, and the disinfection of rooms vacated by a consumptive.

We further recommend the organization of anti-tuberculosis leagues throughout the State for the education of the people, not forgetting that the most important work is to be among Negroes and other working classes.

To cure early cases, Virginia should have a sanatorium, which should receive State aid, for the care of the indigent poor, which is a large class in this State. Such a sanatorium should provide for the colored as well as the white cases. We recommend that this matter be referred to a special committee to be properly drafted and presented to the Legislature."

Commenting on these recommendations the Bulletin of the Virginia Board of Health says:—

"We have hospitals for the insane — four in number — at which about thirty-four hundred insane citizens of the State are cared for, only a few of whom are restored. Should not the State do something for the consumptives — a class four times as large as that already mentioned and just as needy, just as deserving, more contagious, with greater danger of innocently contaminating friends or neighbors, and with many more chances of restoration."

This is an important step which the white physicians of Virginia have taken, and the emphatic mention of the Negroes in their plans signifies the thoroughness with which they intend to work. To the scientific mind of the physician it would be folly to omit the Negro race from a movement of this character. So long as the colored people, forming a third of the State population, are afflicted

with such a disease as tuberculosis there is no freedom for the whites. It is to be hoped that the Virginia legislature will make liberal provision for the fifteen thousand unfortunates suffering from tuberculosis within the limits of the State. *The Southern Workman, February, 1906.*

Labor Difficulties in the Philippines.

The plans for harbor improvements involve an expenditure of about \$4,000,000, the work being in charge of Major C. McD. Townsend, an engineer in the United States Army. After difficulties, however, a New York company took the contract for the construction of the breakwaters, the dredging of the harbor, and the filling of the land to be reclaimed, the work to be completed for \$2,500,000. The company secured the additional contract of filling in 3,000,000 square feet in front of the Luneta, the two moats which surround the Walled City and a large tract of low country beyond the municipal building.

The first difficulty the company encountered was the labor problem. American workmen were employed, but they were of little value in such an enervating climate. Then American Negroes were employed, but they, too, proved unsatisfactory. Chinese laborers were next secured, but to the disgust of the company they were worse than the American or the Negro workmen. As what seemed a last resort, Japanese laborers were introduced, and when they, too, failed to handle the work the company was preparing to face ruin, when someone suggested that the Filipinos have a chance. At that time nobody thought the Filipinos worth their salt as laborers; but, since there was no alternative, they were employed. To the surprise and delight of the company and of the Commission, they filled the bill, and the harbor improvements are now a reality. The story of these native workmen — how a thousand of them with their wives and families received sanitary houses, wholesome and nutritious food, amusements, schools, a church, and how faithful and efficient they have proved — is one of the brightest chapters in the history of the American occupation. The company was greatly embarrassed and its work delayed by the dishonesty of American firms, who, on the supposition that anything was good enough for the Philippines, shipped damaged goods and machinery.

The area reclaimed from Manila Bay comprises 190 acres. The streets of this block are to be ninety feet wide, and the reclaimed area will be surrounded by a roadway 160 feet wide. At the entrance to the reclaimed land, on opposite sides of this thoroughfare will stand a new custom house and a chamber of commerce, both to be fine stone structures.

In the harbor itself about 600 acres are protected against the terrible typhoons of the southwest monsoon season by two massive stone breakwaters extending nearly three miles. In the construction of these great walls more than 2,000,000 tons of stone have been used. Of the 600 acres of protected harbor 350 acres have been dredged to a depth of thirty feet, and the dredging can be extended as more room is required.

But, of all the innovations, the street cars are the dearest to the hearts of Americans. The Manila Street Railroad and Electric Light Company is spending more than \$5,000,000 to supply the city with transportation and light. The city will soon have a new telephone system, too.

The street car company has employed native labor from the first, and with very happy results.

It now has fifty miles of as fine a track as can be found anywhere, and the line may be extended around the head of the bay to Cavite. Near this historical spot there will be a pleasure park such as can be found nowhere else in the Orient; and on Sundays the people may enjoy an outing through one of the finest sections of country in the Archipelago.

Manila is governed by a Municipal Board of five members, three of whom are Americans. These men are not elected by the people, but appointed by the Governor-General, the system of government being modeled after that of Washington, D. C. The natives at times complain, but every thrifty white man in the city will tell you that Manila would have gone to the dogs had the people been allowed to manage their own affairs. As it is, the Municipal Board is administering probably the cleanest city government under the American Flag. There are no political bosses or huge corporations to fight, and there is no "grafting." — *The Bull-Dog Gazette (U. S. S. Oregon), Carite, P. I.*, Jan. 10, 1906.

Compulsory Education in the Shops.

The decadence of the apprentice system and the consequent evils appear to extend wherever modern methods of manufacturing are employed. The United States is feeling the first real pinch of it in a scarcity of skilled workmen, the like of which has never been experienced before. England is striving to alleviate conditions said to be even worse than in America by the encouragement of industrial and technical schools, both manufacturers and the Government recognizing that unless means are provided to bring up an army of trained men an industrial peril far more serious than that existing will be brought upon the country. France proposes to take the bull by the horns by establishing a very radical system of compulsory industrial education which would be injected into factory and workshop, employers being made responsible, under penalty, for the training of child employees. The *Engineer*, London, in a leading editorial on the French agitation, reveals the apprehension of England, and American manufacturers will recognize a pretty good exposition of affairs in this country in the words of the British writer, who says:

"In 1902 the Conseil Supérieur du Travail held an inquiry, and it was reported that apprenticeship in France was declining to an alarming extent, both as regards numbers and efficiency. Matters have improved but little since. There is no lack of young people in the factories, there are more than enough, but they are not apprentices, they are not taught the trade, but are engaged on work on which it is profitable to employ them, and they are paid wages in the ordinary sense of the word. The resemblance to the condition of affairs which prevails here [England] is obvious, and, indeed, under modern methods of manufacturing the condition is, unless by-laws and regulations intervene, inevitable. Keen competition and close cut prices, the automatic tool, the jig and the rig, the tool room, the routine card, the single operation method, and the hundred branches of the organization of a well-ordered and profitable factory have made it

possible for a great part of the work to be carried on by intelligence trained within the narrowest bounds, and since such labor is highly economical it is very largely employed. Moreover, the opposition to the system which might have come from parents and guardians of the lads has not only been removed but has been actually replaced by encouragement. Actuated by the desire — frequently from necessity — to see the children contributing to the support of the home, the parents, rather than bind them apprentices, have sought employment for them at remunerative wages. The result is unavoidable; the employers require lads to do routine work, the parents wish their boys to earn wages; the apprentice disappears and his place is taken by a youthful workman."

Now the Conseil Supérieur du Travail has prepared a long report which is the first step towards a new French law which will apply to both boys and girls, whether they are bound by indenture or not; and the discussion of which, it is believed, will result in a compulsory system of industrial education, along the lines laid down by the Conseil, or closely resembling them. This law, as proposed, will provide for the establishment of technical or trade classes, attendance at which, during eight hours per week, will be compulsory. The employer will be obliged not only to permit attendance at these classes within the legal 10 hour working-day, but he will be expected to see that his young people are regular and proficient in their studies. At the end of each year there will be an examination in proficiency, and every boy or girl who can pass it will be exempt from any further attendance at the classes. The youth who, after a year of careful application, fails to satisfy his teachers that he has the mental capacity for greater improvement is to be exempt from further attendance. Those who have received technical education at other schools will, of course, be exempt. In the examining body will be representatives of the employers. The education will be entirely free and the cost will be borne by the municipalities aided by State subscriptions.

A system such as this does not appeal to the American idea. The same evil exists in this country, but probably it will be remedied in some less radical manner and one which will not impose a compulsory burden upon the employer. The American manufacturer is becoming educated in the great question of providing capable labor for the future. He is taking great interest in industrial and technical schools. He is encouraging his employees to take advantage of the evening schools. He is even establishing evening schools at his own expense when no others are available. Sound business sense is combined with the philanthropic side of his interest. The present famine of skilled labor, at a time when there is no lack of unskilled material waiting for the chance to learn, has taught a lesson that will not be forgotten when the need has passed by. Usually in America the natural process of business evolution produces the panacea for any industrial evil, and the awakening of the manufacturer to a danger is an all-important element in the process. — *The Iron Age, New York*, Jan. 18, 1906.

STATISTICAL ABSTRACTS.

Imports and Exports, Boston, 1905.

The *Journal of Commerce and Finance* of the United States for December, 1905, reports that for the year ending December, 1905, the imports of merchandise at Boston amounted to \$106,065,998, an increase of \$26,118,221 over 1895. The exports from Boston during the same year aggregated \$93,797,887, an increase of \$4,778,014 over 1895.

Unfair Shops—Metal Works.

Out of 31 establishments manufacturing metals and metallic goods which were listed and recorded as "unfair" in the February *Journal* issued by the Metal Polishers, Buffers, Platers, Brass Molders, and Brass and Silver Workers International Union, five are located in Massachusetts—three in Southbridge and two in Boston.

Crime in Fall River—1905.

The number of persons arrested in Fall River during the year ending Nov. 30, 1905, reported by the Board of Police was 3,978, an increase of 353, or 9.74 per cent over the preceding year; 3,388 were males and 590 females. Thirty-nine persons were delivered to other authorities, 1,432 were released, and 2,507 held for trial. The number of arrests was 3.76 per cent of the population. Of the 407 persons arrested for offences against property, 189, or 46.44 per cent, were under 20 years of age. The number of non-residents arrested was 15.21 per cent of the total arrests. The proportion of prisoners of foreign birth was 27.25 per cent greater than the proportion of population of foreign birth. The proportion of prisoners between the ages of 20 and 39 was 59.34 per cent greater than the proportion of the population. The arrests for drunkenness numbered 2,176, or 54.70 per cent of all arrests; 20.31 per cent were non-residents and 63.51 per cent were of foreign birth. The number of juvenile offenders was 258, a decrease of 24.11 per cent; 20.55 per cent of the offenders were of foreign birth, and 83.14 per cent of the parents were of foreign birth.

Textile Mill Escalators.

The Wood Worsted Co., of Lawrence, is having four escalators constructed to be installed in its new mill at Lawrence. It is stated that this is the first time that provision has been made in the plans of a manufacturing plant for carrying employees from one floor to another. The carrying capacity of the moving stairways will be 2,000 operatives. The estimated cost is \$100,000. It is hoped on account of the large number of women employees that the great benefit derived from the installation of the escalators will offset the expense. The fact that the mill will be six stories high and that the spinning room will be on the top floor seems to render the escalators almost invaluable. The company thinks by this improvement in conjunc-

tion with others in the equipment of the factory it will be enabled to have a larger field of applicants for employment to choose from.

Education in Massachusetts—1904.

The total expenditure for public education in Massachusetts for the year 1903-4, as reported by the State Board of Education, was \$16,438,668, an increase of \$1,266,598 over the preceding year. The amount paid for teachers' salaries was \$9,197,908, an increase of \$322,693, and for buildings, alterations, and repairs there was expended \$3,653,433, an increase of \$489,777 as compared with the preceding year. The average cost of education per pupil increased from \$35.80 in 1902-3 to \$38.10 in 1903-4. The percentage of local State valuation (May 1, 1903) raised by local taxation and expended for public school purposes was \$4.95 per \$1,000, an increase over 1902 of \$0.23 per \$1,000.

The average membership of pupils in all the public schools was 431,361, and the percentage attendance based on the average membership was .91. There were employed in the public schools 14,741 teachers, an increase of 442. The average salary of male teachers per month was \$145.48, an increase of \$0.21, and of female teachers was \$55.37, an increase of \$0.76 over the previous year.

Factory Inspection in Massachusetts—1905.

During the year 1905 the Massachusetts District Police made 9,699 inspections of factories. There were found to be employed 350,931 males and 208,714 females, making a total of 559,645; the children under 16 numbered 18,278. All districts except Boston reported the law relating to the employment of children under 16 satisfactorily complied with. Here it was found, especially in the smaller establishments, that the employers did not insist upon the age and schooling certificates before allowing children to go to work; usually the promise was made to procure it, and then the employer would neglect the matter until it was called to his attention.

There were 3,363 elevators inspected. Regarding elevator accidents the report says, "it is not surprising that there are accidents—it is surprising that there are not more accidents, when we observe the careless and indifferent manner in which these dangerous machines are operated."

Twenty-three offences against the labor law were prosecuted; of these, 12 resulted in the offender being fined, the fines amounting to \$402; four were placed on file; and seven cases were discharged or were pending at the latest report. Sixteen of these prosecutions were against the unlawful employment of women and of children under 18; four against the employment of children under 14; and the others against the violation of R. L., c. 104, in not providing proper egress, not posting fire-escape notices, and not

providing fire-alarm gongs; violation of sanitary laws; and operating motion-picture machines without approval of the District Police.

Industrial Accidents in Massachusetts, 1905.

The number of accidents due to causes connected with the operation of machinery which occurred during the year 1905, and was reported to the Massachusetts District Police, was 1,733, as compared with 1,434 in 1904, and 1,547 in 1903. Forty-six accidents proved fatal in 1905, 37 in 1904, and 36 in 1903. The number of persons injured by machinery in cotton, woolen, and paper mills and shoe factories in 1905 was 1,097, as compared with 996 in 1904, and 1,115 in 1903. There were 768 persons injured while engaged in cleaning machinery while in motion, or by attempting to extricate therefrom waste, bobbins, or other articles which in some manner had caught or become entangled in the machine; in 1904, there were 488 like cases, in 1903 there were 513. The number injured in this manner constituted 44.32 per cent of all the accidents, and contributes in that degree to suffering which reasonable care and circumspection would have avoided.

The accidents reported, but not included in the foregoing paragraph, having no connection whatever with the running of machinery, were: 518 injured while engaged at work, either as carpenters in making repairs, painters on buildings, laborers employed in mill yards loading or unloading cars or trucks, or in some other occupation necessary to the operation of any such establishment; 71 injured by weights falling upon them; 73 injured by splinters; 83 in using tools; 27 injured by flying sparks; 69 fell from staging; 95 injured by falling; and 20 in recreation.

Eight-hour Day for Printers.

In reviewing the situation of the contest of typographical employees for an eight-hour day the *Typographical Journal* for February states as follows:

The total membership of the International Typographical Union is 47,344; 37,741 of this number are now working eight hours a day. On the strike roll are 5,304 members. Those unions where no decided action has been taken regarding the eight-hour movement include 7,693 members, but of this number 40 per cent (about 3,067) are newspaper men and are working but eight hours a day. The membership reported for the Massachusetts unions affiliated with the International is 2,342. In no instance has any action been reported as to the eight-hour movement in this State.

Reduction in Hours of Labor—Woolen Goods.

In December, 1905, William Wood & Co. of Philadelphia voluntarily made a reduction in the working time of its mills from 60 hours to 57 hours a week, and advanced the wages of both time and piece-work employees five per cent to offset the reduction in time. Since these changes were announced by the company quite a number of other mills in the Philadelphia district have adopted the same course, so that it might be said that there has been a general reduction of three hours in the working week of the woolen and worsted mills of Philadelphia and vicinity.

William Wood & Co. stated to the Bureau that they were entirely in favor of a further reduction in the hours of woolen and worsted textile workers to even 54 a week, providing the working week could be made 54 hours throughout the industry in all districts. Of

course it is understood that such a step could not be taken without the concurrence of the other mills making the same kind of products.

Cotton Goods—South Carolina.

According to the returns of the United States Census Bureau the number of establishments engaged in the manufacture of cotton goods in South Carolina in 1905 was 127, against 80 in 1900. The authorized capital reported in 1905 for said establishments aggregated \$82,337,429, an increase of \$43,078,483, or 109.73 per cent, as compared with 1900. The value of product in 1905 was \$49,437,644 against \$29,723,919 in 1900, an increase of \$19,713,725, or 66.32 per cent.

Education in New York, 1905.

Public education in the schools of New York State cost last year \$41,064,842, an increase of \$3,329,905 over the preceding year. For teachers' salaries there was paid the sum of \$23,084,218, which was \$1,104,831 more than that expended in the year before. For buildings, sites, and repairs there was expended \$10,984,565, an increase of \$2,321,999, and for libraries \$172,976, a decrease of \$38,024, as compared with the preceding year. The average per capita cost of education has increased. Last year it was \$33.45 per pupil, which was \$2.30 more than the year before. The value of elementary school buildings and grounds is put at \$105,572,576, an increase of \$13,124,317. There is a wide disproportion between the values of school buildings in cities and of those in districts outside the cities. In cities the average value is \$91,330.91; in districts outside the cities \$1,833.63. There were employed in the public elementary schools 32,886 teachers, an increase of 697, at an average annual salary of \$701.94 and an average weekly one of \$19.94.—*Bradstreet's, Jan. 27, 1906.*

Alien Immigration, United States, 1905.

The number of alien immigrants, exclusive of aliens on transit, admitted into the United States during the 12 months ending December, 1905, aggregated 1,055,834. Of this number 284,067 came from Austria Hungary, 268,441 from Italy, 177,860 from Russia, 48,645 from England, 37,644 from Ireland, 36,943 from Germany, 24,870 from Sweden, and 23,202 from Norway. The number of immigrants hailing from these eight foreign divisions aggregated 902,572, or about 85 per cent of the total.

Of the total number, 61,362 arrived at the port of Boston, and 826,934 at the port of New York.—*Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance of the United States, December, 1905.*

Foreign Automobile Trade of the United States.

The following table shows the growth of American exports in automobiles since 1901, the first year in which exports of automobiles were published by the *Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance*.

YEARS.	Values of Exports	ANNUAL INCREASE IN	
		Values	Percentages
1901,	367,371		
1902,	1,069,782	702,411	191.20
1903,	1,643,029	573,247	53.59
1904,	1,897,510	254,481	15.49
1905,*	2,499,010	601,500	31.70

* 11 months ending November 30, 1905.

During the five years, 1901-1905, excluding the month of December, 1905, the total exports amounted to \$7,476,702. The increase in 1905 over 1901 amounted to \$2,131,639, or 530.24 per cent.

The exports to the United Kingdom in 1905 amounted to \$631,787.

There were 451 automobiles imported during the first 11 months of 1905, amounting in value to \$1,697,026; making the average value of each automobile imported \$3,763. The value of "parts" imported was \$106,327; making the total value of the imports \$1,803,353.

Finances of the United States Government.

The ordinary revenues of the United States Treasury for 1905, as compared with 1904, show an increase of \$3,642,935.45, while the expenditures were less by \$15,123,407.86. The net result for the fiscal year was an excess of expenditures over revenues of \$23,004,228.60.

For the last two years the expenditures of the Government have been in excess of the revenues to the aggregate amount of more than \$64,000,000. This, however, included the extraordinary expenditures in 1904 of \$50,000,000 on account of the Panama Canal.

The available cash balance in the general fund on June 30, 1905, was \$145,477,491.89, a reduction for the year of \$26,574,076.13.

The revenues for the first quarter of 1906 were \$147,014,725.10 and the expenditures \$150,588,966.66, an excess of expenditures over receipts of \$9,574,241.56. In the first quarter of 1905 expenditures were \$17,856,615 in excess of receipts.

The annual estimate of the appropriations required for the Government service of the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1907, has been transmitted to Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury.

The total for all Departments, including deficiencies, miscellaneous, and permanent annual appropriations, is \$622,723,151.

The appropriations for the current fiscal year were \$629,738,093, and the estimates for the current fiscal year were \$619,669,852.

The following table is a recapitulation, by Departments, of the estimates for the coming fiscal year and the appropriations for the present fiscal year:

DEPARTMENTS.	Estimates for 1907	Appropriations for 1906
Legislative,	\$11,330,835	\$12,097,554
Executive,	383,750	385,762
State,	4,241,367	2,758,441
Treasury,	160,143,475	167,943,176
War,	109,601,067	123,535,572
Navy,	125,112,468	119,374,358
Interior,	170,359,459	173,589,121
Post-office,	13,960,506	2,302,202
Agriculture,	7,626,210	7,785,487
Commerce and Labor,	11,263,938	11,092,221
Justice,	8,700,073	8,874,199
TOTAL,	\$622,723,151	\$629,738,093

— *Monthly Bulletin, International Bureau, American Republics, January, 1906.*

Mongolian vs. White Labor.

The Japanese and Korean Exclusion League, of San Francisco, Cal., according to a report in the *Labor Clarion*, recently sent out 500 blanks to the various labor organizations in the State of California, calling for information relative to the competition of Mongolian workmen. Of the 500 blanks sent out comparatively few were returned, but these contained the information which is presented in the following table:

OCCUPATIONS, AND COMPARATIVE INFORMATION.		White	Chinese	Japanese
	<i>Broom Makers.</i>			
Hours a day,		9	10-14	-
Wages a day,		\$2.50	\$0.75-\$1.25	-
	<i>Garment Cutters.</i>			
Wages a day,		\$3.50	\$2.00	-
	<i>Laundry Workers (San Francisco).</i>			
Hours a day,		9	15-18	12-15
Wages a week,		\$6.50-\$18.00	\$6.00-\$10.00	\$6.00-\$10.00
Wages a month (with board),		-	-	\$15.00-\$30.00
	<i>Laundry Workers (Stockton).</i>			
Hours a day,		10	16-20	16-20
Wages a day,		\$1.25-\$3.00	-	-
	<i>Cooks.</i>			
Hours a day,		10½-13	14-16	14-16
Wages for six days,		\$15.00-\$25.00	\$5.00-\$7.00	\$5.00-\$7.00
	<i>Waiters.</i>			
Hours a day,		9, 10*	13	14
Wages a week,		\$7.00-\$10.50†	\$6.00-\$7.00	\$4.00-\$5.00
	<i>Cooks (on Trains).</i>			
Wages a month,		\$60.00-\$90.00	-	\$35.00
	<i>Waiters (on Trains).</i>			
Wages a month,		\$40.00	-	\$30.00
	<i>Dishwashers and Pantrymen (on Trains).</i>			
Wages a month,		\$32.50	-	\$20.00
	<i>Cooks' Helpers in Railroad Construction Camps.</i>			
Days a week,		6	7	7
Hours a day,		-	14	14
Wages a week,		\$8.00	\$5.00	\$4.00
	<i>Butchers.</i>			
Hours a day,		10	16	-

* Nine hours a day for women.

† \$7.00 a week for women.

The Sailors' Union reported that there were about 2,700 Mongolians employed on American vessels sailing from ports on the Pacific Coast. The Butchers' Union reported that 200 Chinese were employed; that the Chinese handle about 75 per cent of all the pork slaughtered in San Francisco, and while butchers handling pork are compelled to work for 25 to 50 per cent less money than those engaged in other branches of the trade. The Cooks' Union reported the number of Chinese employed, varying according to season, from 150 to 300; Japanese from 400 to 1,000. About 180 Chinese and 1,200 Japanese waiters were employed in restaurants and boarding houses.

A bill was also prepared by a special committee to be presented to Congress calling for the application of the Chinese Exclusion Laws to the Japanese and Koreans.

Dividends in Lancashire Cotton Mills.

The gross profit of 71 Lancashire cotton mills making returns for 1905 amounts to \$2,865,650.40, an average of \$40,361.27 per company, or $7\frac{1}{4}$ per cent of the capital stock. The number of spindles represented by these 71 companies is 6,176,366. The appraised value of the mills, machinery, etc., is \$18,544,321.44, an average of \$2.97 per spindle. This rate of dividend has been equaled in Lancashire in but one other year since 1884, while the average for these 22 years is 4.06 per cent — *Textile World Record, February, 1906.*

Chinese Cotton Factories.

German papers state that a working-day in the Chinese cotton factories is $13\frac{1}{2}$ hours; night shifts work 10 hours. The abolition of night work has been agitated, with the result that only a few mills now run day and night. Many cotton factories at Shanghai still pay by the piece, and the workingmen earn the equivalent of about 12 cents American a day. — *Daily Consular and Trade Reports, No. 2278.*

Cotton-mill Operatives in Germany.

According to the terms of the agreement of the great strike of cotton-mill operatives of Saxony and Thuringia, involving 40,000 workers, the working-day in the factories is to be $10\frac{1}{2}$ hours. The minimum day wage scale paid is as follows: Male operatives up to 18 years of age, 55 cents; female operatives, $34\frac{1}{2}$ cents. Those that have not been employed in the factories for six months receive 10 per cent less than these rates. Overtime will be paid for at the rate of $7\frac{1}{2}$ to $9\frac{1}{2}$ cents an hour. — *Daily Consular and Trade Reports, No. 2364.*

The Unemployed in New Zealand.

The January *Journal of the Department of Labour* of Wellington, New Zealand, states that during December, 1905, there were 582 unemployed persons assisted by the Department. Of this number 120 were married and 462 were single, the number of persons dependent upon the applicants being 478. Those sent to private employment numbered 121, and to government works, 461. The cause attributed to the persons' failure to get work was slackness of trade. The number of wives assisted was four, while there were nine children assisted.

Income of Railways — United States, 1905.

The Preliminary Report of the Income and Expenditures of Operating Railways in the United States for the year ending September 30, 1905, covers statements of 752 operating companies. It includes the returns of all railways whose reports were on file with the Interstate Commerce Commission on or before De-

cember 6, and represents an operated mileage of 214,477.82 miles.

The gross earnings of the railways for the year ending June 30, 1905, on the mileage already stated, were \$2,073,177,325. This total comprised earnings from the passenger service amounting to \$572,109,386, or 27.60 per cent; earnings from the freight service amounting to \$1,449,182,702, or 69.90 per cent, and other miscellaneous earnings amounting to \$51,885,257, or 2.50 per cent. According to this preliminary report, the gross earnings from operation averaged \$9,666 per mile of line. This average is considerably larger than the like average for any other year for which a statistical report has been published by the Commission. The final report for the year ending June 30, 1904, showed that the total gross earnings of the railways, on 212,243.20 miles of line, for that year were \$1,975,174,091, being equivalent to \$9,306 per mile. Of the gross earnings per mile of line the passenger service contributed \$2,667 and the freight service \$6,737. In a general way it may be said that the several per-mile averages shown in connection with the preliminary reports are likely to be somewhat larger than similar averages in the corresponding final reports, in consequence of the fact that the latter include returns for additional roads in which the ratios of the items to the respective mileages are less than the general averages.

The operating expenses of the railways embraced in the current preliminary report amounted to \$1,383,584,404, thus averaging \$6,451 per mile of line. For the year ending June 30, 1904, the operating expenses reported finally were \$1,338,896,253, or \$6,308 per mile. This advance report indicates that the ratio of operating expenses to earnings for 1905 was 66.74 per cent. The final report for the year 1904 gave for this item 67.79 per cent. This preliminary report shows that the net earnings of essentially the same roads were, for the year ending June 30, 1905, \$689,592,921, and for the year ending June 30, 1904, \$634,674,561. The railway companies for which returns are included in this advance report also received \$114,636,642 in the form of income from investments in the stocks and bonds of railway and other corporations, and from other miscellaneous sources. The net earnings, as stated above, must be increased by this sum to obtain the entire income which these operating lines had at their disposal for corporate expenditures and for reserve or surplus funds as well. The total income, consequently, was \$804,229,563. The aggregate of all the deductions chargeable against such total income was \$713,994,800. The principal items included in these deductions were interest on funded debt, rents of leased lines, permanent improvements charged to income, taxes (which were \$58,533,381), and dividends, \$196,080,237, as described below. It thus appears that the surplus for the year resulting from the operations of those roads which the preliminary report covers was \$90,234,763. The complete or final report for the year ending June 30, 1904, covering both operating and leased roads, showed a surplus of \$56,729,331, and the like report for the year 1903 showed a surplus of \$99,227,469.

As was mentioned above, the preliminary report shows that the operating companies declared dividends during the year to the amount of \$196,080,237; it further shows that the dividends declared by practically the same roads during the year 1904 were \$184,313,472. From these figures it appears that there was an increase in dividends of \$11,766,785.

It should be borne in mind, however, that the preliminary reports, being confined to the returns of operating roads only, necessarily exclude all dividends

declared by subsidiary companies, the property of which has been leased to others for operation. The income of such subsidiary companies is, of course, mainly derived from the rents which they receive from their lessees, from which they make their own corporate expenditures and declare dividends, if any. For the year ending June 30, 1904, the final statistical report showed that the total amount of dividends declared by all the railway companies covered by that report—that is, both operating and leased lines—was \$221,941,049.

Pig Iron Production, United States, 1905.

The American Iron and Steel Association reports the total production of pig iron in the United States for 1905 to be 22,992,380 tons, over 25 per cent greater than the year of the heaviest production, 1903. The aggregate shows 40 per cent increase over the production of 1904. The production of bituminous coal, or coke iron, amounted to 20,964,937 tons, over 90 per cent of the total produced.

Considering the production of iron in gross tons in 1905, by States, we find Pennsylvania with 10,579,127; Ohio, 4,586,110; Illinois, 2,034,483; New York, 1,198,068. These are the only States which exceeded the million mark. The production of Massachusetts and Connecticut in 1905 reached 15,987 gross tons.

The statistics of steel ingots and castings in 1905 show a production of 10,941,375 tons. Pennsylvania leads with 4,491,445, followed by Ohio with 3,131,149, and Illinois with 1,651,250. The other States in the aggregate produced 1,667,531 gross tons. The steel production in 1905 was 3,082,235 tons greater than in 1904.

Pig Iron Production, Great Britain, 1905.

The number of tons of pig iron produced in Great Britain in 1905, as reported by *Bradstreet's*, was 9,592,737. This is an increase of 1,030,079 tons over the output of 1904, or more than 12 per cent, the greatest advance since 1899, when the output was 9,305,319 tons.

The total average number of furnaces in blast during the year was 346 as against 325 for 1904. Allowing that the average annual output of these furnaces is 27,000 tons, Great Britain is producing at the rate of nearly 10,000,000 tons per annum, a figure which considerably exceeds that of any previous period in the history of the British trade.

Friendly Society of Iron Founders.

According to the Monthly Report of the Friendly Society of Iron Founders we learn that the total number of members at the close of February, 1906, was 18,595, an increase of 133 members as compared with the corresponding period in 1905. The weekly expenditure for donation and dispute was reported to be £215 18s 4d (\$1,050.65), or over 3d (\$0.06) per member per week. The weekly expenditures for sickness aggregated £2087s (\$1,013.83), or under 3d (\$0.06) per member per week, while the weekly superannuation expense was £379 12s 6d (\$1,847.26), more than 5½d (\$0.11) per member per week. The total weekly expenditure was shown to be £803 17s 10d (\$3,911.74), or over 11½d (\$0.23) per member per week.

Wages Paid Farm Laborers and Domestic Servants, Ontario, Canada.

There has been almost a steady, though gradual, increase paid farm laborers and domestic servants in the Province of Ontario, Canada, as reported by the Ontario Bureau of Industries. The average yearly rate paid farm laborers, with board, has risen from \$156 in 1894 to \$183 in 1903, while the average yearly

rate, without board, has increased from \$247 in 1894 to \$274 in 1903. Monthly wages, with board, averaged \$19.44 in 1903, an increase of \$2.89 in 10 years. Monthly wages, without board, averaged \$28.04 in 1903, the increase in 10 years being \$2.43. The monthly wage of domestic servants averaged \$7.84 in 1903, an increase of \$1.61 over the wages paid in 1894.

Changes In Wages and Hours of Labor—Canada, 1905.

The total number of changes in the rates of wages and hours of labor during 1905 and affecting in each case a number of workpeople was 140. There were 118 increases in wages, accompanied in four instances by decreases in hours of labor; 14 were decreases in hours; four were decreases in wages, and the remainder were increases in hours accompanied by a corresponding increase in earnings. The largest number of skilled employees affected was in the building trades, there being 3,884, the total increase in weekly earnings being \$7,796, accompanied by a decrease in weekly employment of 1,791 hours. The civic employees numerically follow in importance, there being 1,621 such workpeople affected, the total increase of weekly earnings for these persons being \$1,220.

Considering aggregate decreases in hours of employment a week, two of the most important changes were in the building and printing trades. There was a decrease of weekly labor in the printing trades of 1,771 hours, while the decrease in the building trades, as we have above stated, was 1,791 hours.

An early closing by-law was passed by the city of Montreal, Quebec, during the month of March, 1905, by which all stores, excepting tobacco, news, confectionery, etc., and saloons, were compelled to close at 7 P.M. on Wednesdays and Thursdays of each week, except during December, and on days preceding public holidays. This by-law affected between 8,000 and 10,000 employees.

Early closing arrangements went into effect in a large number of cities and towns throughout Canada during the summer months, the chief persons affected being retail clerks, barbers, factory employees, etc.—*Labour Gazette, Department of Labour, Canada, February, 1906.*

France Desires to Illuminate with Alcohol.

Consul-General Skinner, of Marseille, writes that the official decree has been published by the President of the French Republic providing for prizes for the following-described inventions:

One prize of 20,000 francs (\$3,860) is instituted for the benefit of the person who shall discover a denaturizing agent for alcohol more advantageous than the denaturizing agent now in use, and offering to the "treasury" every guarantee against fraud.

One prize of 50,000 francs (\$9,650) is provided for the benefit of the person who shall discover a system of utilizing alcohol for illuminating purposes under the same conditions as petroleum.

The commission of analytical methods and of alcohol denaturization instituted within the ministry of finance by the decree of June 23, 1896, is instructed to determine the conditions under which these prizes shall be distributed, and to award them in conformity with the programme which it shall lay down.

Corporations in Germany.

The improvement in German industrial conditions is shown by the number of new corporations which were formed in Germany during the year 1905. In the first half of the year 87 corporations were formed

with a total capital of \$50,170,000, and in the second half 104 with \$35,150,000 capital, making a total of 191 corporations with \$85,320,000 capital. The figures for former years were: 1904, 104 corporations with \$35,150,000 capital; 1903, 84 with \$75,000,000; 1902, 86 with \$29,600,000 capital. The average capital per corporation amounted to \$504,000 in 1905, \$337,500 in 1904, \$892,500 in 1903, and \$340,000 in 1902. The largest of these were in the mining and metal industries.—*Daily Consular and Trade Reports, No. 2495.*

British Gas Prices.

There are 1,252 gas plants in England, 259 in Scotland, 110 in Ireland, 135 in Australasia, 52 in Canada, 15 in other British possessions, and 15 British gas companies operating on the Continent and other parts of the world. All large Scottish towns own their gas works, which produce 83.8 per cent of the total, while in England only 31.3 per cent is so made and in Ireland 44.9 per cent. The largest gas company in the world, the London Gas Light and Coke Company, makes 22,000,000,000 cubic feet of gas per year and charges 59 cents per 1,000, while some of the other 11 London companies charge a good deal less, notably the South Metropolitan Company, which charges 48 cents, and the Wandsworth Company, whose charge is 52 cents. Gas cooking stoves grow in favor, the number having increased 250,000 last year in the United Kingdom.—*Gas World Year Book, 1905.*

Emigration from Europe.

Spain.

The subject of immigration has never been a more important one to the United States than at the present time. The fields, shops, and mills of our country are all calling for more labor. From what source shall it come is the interesting question. The tide of emigration from Northern Europe has ebbed, and Italy's sons have been coming in peaceful armies to our aid. But this, too, will decrease, since Italy is becoming depleted. Another Mediterranean country is Spain, the only European country that has not yet started a tide of emigration for our shores. That the Spaniard has not yet caught the migrating fever seriously is evidenced by the fact that less than two per 1,000 inhabitants started for other lands during 1904, while in the same year over seven Irishmen out of each 1,000 left their native island, and still more Italians quit their peninsula. Therefore, the following report from Consul Harmony, of Corunna, will prove of considerable interest to Americans:

In Spain the maritime provinces are the most abundant sources of emigration. Yet the seacoast population has increased, while that of the inland provinces, which contribute few emigrants, is much lower in comparison and remains stationary. In the year 1904 98,394 left Spain by sea, and 71,254 entered. These totals include the important movement between Spain and Africa, France and Gibraltar. The excess of emigration over immigration in Spain is from the most densely populated provinces, which continue to increase in population. As to the comparison of emigration from this country with emigration from other European nations, the statistics published by the Geographical and Statistical Institute of Spain give Ireland 7.37 emigrants per 1,000 inhabitants, and Spain 1.82 per 1,000.

No exact figures are obtainable as to the total of the important sums sent or brought into Spain by persons

who emigrated to America, but it is averred that in the year 1904 one banking house in Corunna paid \$2,200,000 through drafts from America, entirely apart from any commercial transaction. In the same year the bank of Rio de la Plata paid drafts for \$8,000,000. Therefore, it is not too much to infer that in the year 1904 \$16,000,000 were sent or brought into this country by Spaniards who emigrated to the new world.

Germany.

During the eighties of the last century Germany sent as many as 200,000 emigrants to the United States in a single year. That is 10 times as many as she is sending to-day. The healthy development of German industries at home turned the tide of emigration from America to the cities, and the marvelous growth of such places as Berlin, Chemnitz, Nuremberg, and others has been the result. This Empire has so rationally understood not only how to stem the tide of a great emigration, even to such a country as the United States, but to render it possible for these people to better their condition and to found new homes within the limits of the mother country, where the population is already overcrowded and still increasing at the rate of 800,000 per annum.

Italy.

In 1905 more than 700,000 emigrants departed from Italy to seek homes in North and South America. This represents a population almost as large as the annual increase and gain which the German Empire adds to its population. Owing to the continual heavy drain in some parts, especially Venetia and Calabria, whole districts have become practically depopulated. It not uncommonly happens that an entire company, with a priest at its head, starts for the seaport to begin the journey to some part of America in order to seek out a new existence. The South American States, particularly Brazil, are the chief goal of the Italians, but the United States and Canada, too, receive a considerable part of this great stream of emigration. With their uncommonly small needs and surprisingly high degree of agricultural efficiency, there is no question but that the Italian emigrants will succeed in making good farmers. Their nature is also such that as soon as they get comfortably established, the desire to live well begins to assert itself. In this way Italian colonies become communities of great purchasing power. The Italian colonization in Brazil has increased in such a measure that in some districts the Italian language is beginning to crowd out the Portuguese, and the whole life is taking on quite an Italian character.

Whether Italy, like Germany, will ever be able to check this exodus of the country population seems more than doubtful. Unlike England and Germany, Italy will never, even proportionately, become a great industrial State. France has succeeded in keeping the pendulum evenly swinging between her agricultural and industrial interests. This is due to the fact that France gives few emigrants to foreign countries, while the birth rate adds but little in the shape of an increase to her annual census. Italy was also able to do this until the enormous emigration already referred to began to exert such a powerful influence upon her agricultural interests. The next few years must tell the tale whether the Italian tide of emigration will begin to ebb in consequence of more favorable conditions at home.—*Daily Consular and Trade Reports, Nos. 2500 and 2509.*

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No. 30, March, 1904. National Trades Association—Massachusetts-born Living in Other States—Industrial Betterments—A Partial Religious Canvass of Boston—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Child Labor—Bi-monthly Record of Strikes and Lockouts—Prices of Certain Articles of Food in Toronto, Canada, and Massachusetts—Industrial Agreements—Labor Legislation in Other States and Foreign Countries—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Statistical Abstracts.

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No. 34, December, 1904. Increases in the Cost of Production—Review of Employment and Earnings for Six Months ending October 31, 1904—Semi-annual Record of Strikes and Lockouts: Ending October 31, 1904—Strike of Cotton Operatives in Fall River—Average Retail Prices, April and October, 1904—Absence after Pay Day, No. 2—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Co-operation—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Industrial Agreements—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts—Index to Labor Bulletins of the year 1904, Nos. 23 to 34, inclusive.

No. 35, March, 1905. Wage Earner and Education, The—Free Employment Offices—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Trade Schools and Manual Training Schools—Legislation Regulating and Prohibiting the Employment of Women and Children in the United States—Bulletins of Bureaus of Labor—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Industrial Agreements—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 36, June, 1905. Tramps and Vagrants. Census of 1905—The Loom System—Weekly Day of Rest—Wages and Hours of Labor on Public Works—The Census Enumerators of 1905—Average Retail Prices, October and April—Semi-annual Record of Strikes and Lockouts: Six Months ending April 30, 1905—Labor Legislation in Massachusetts for 1905—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Profit Sharing—Industrial Agreements—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 37, September, 1905. The Work of the Bureau—Earnings of Cotton-mill Operatives—Old-age Pensions—Industrial Agreements—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Bakers' Ten-hour Law Unconstitutional—Statistical Abstracts—Trade Union Directory of Massachusetts for 1905.

No. 40, March, 1906. The taking of a Census—The True Basis of Political Representation—The Restriction of Immigration—Free Employment Offices—Trade Unions: United States and Foreign Countries—Wages Paid Employees in the Navy Yard and Private Establishments—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Immigration—Industrial Agreements—Trade Union Notes—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.



